

# THE ATHENÆUM

Journal of English and Foreign Literature, Science, and the Fine Arts.

No. 1718.

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## UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, LONDON.—

**FACULTY OF MEDICINE.**  
The SESSION 1860-61 will BEGIN on MONDAY, 1st October, at Three o'clock, P.M. A Meeting will be held for the presentation of Students of the Faculty of the Medals and Certificates of Honor awarded at the Class Examinations for the Winter and Summer Terms of the last Session.  
The Lectures to the Classes of the Winter Term will commence as follows:—On TUESDAY, 2nd October—  
Anatomy—Professor Ellis, at 9 o'clock, A.M.  
Anatomy and Physiology—Professor Sharpey, M.D., at 10 A.M.  
Chemistry—Professor Williamson, at 11 A.M.  
Comparative Anatomy—Professor Grant, M.D., at 3 P.M.  
Surgery—Professor Erichsen, at 4 P.M.  
The Principles and Practice of Medicine—Professor Walpole, M.D., at 5 P.M.

On MONDAY, 15th October.  
Practical Physiology and Histology—Professor Harley, M.D., F.R.S., at 4 P.M.

In JANUARY.  
Dental Surgery—Mr. G. A. Ibbotson, at 6 P.M.  
Hospital Practice daily throughout the year, with Clinical Lectures by the Physicians and Surgeons; also Lectures on Ophthalmic Cases.  
Prospectuses may be obtained at the Office of the College.  
JOHN E. ERICHSEN, Dean of the Faculty.  
CHAS. C. ATKINSON, Secretary to the Council.  
25th September, 1860.

## UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, LONDON.—

**FACULTY OF ARTS AND LAWS.**  
SESSION 1860-61.  
The SESSION will COMMENCE on TUESDAY, October 15, when Professor BEESLY, A.M., will deliver an INTRODUCTORY LECTURE, at Three o'clock precisely.  
Subject—The Relation of History to Political Science.

**CLASSES.**  
Latin—Professor Newman.  
Greek—Professor Madden, A.M.  
Sanskrit—Professor Goldstücker.  
Hebrew (Goldsmid Professorship)—Professor Marks.  
Arabic and Persian—Professor Wilson, D.D.  
Hindustani—Professor Syed Abdoolah.  
Tamil—Professor Von Strans.  
Gujarati—Professor Dababhi Naoroji.  
English Language and Literature—Professor Masson, A.M.  
French Language and Literature—Professor Merlet.  
Italian Language and Literature—Professor Arrivabene, LL.D.  
German Language and Literature—Professor Heilmann, Ph.D.  
Comparative Grammar—Professor Key, A.M. F.R.S.  
Mathematics—Professor De Morgan.  
Natural Philosophy and Astronomy—Professor Potter, A.M.  
Chemistry—Professor Williamson, F.R.S.  
Practical Chemistry—Professor Williamson.  
Civil Engineering—Professor Pole.  
Mechanical Principles of Engineering—Professor Eaton Hodgkinson, F.R.S.  
Architecture—Professor Donaldson, Ph.D. M.I.E.A.  
Geology (Goldsmid Professorship)—Professor Morris, F.G.S.  
Mineralogy—Professor Morris, F.G.S.  
Drawing Teacher—Mr. Moore.  
Botany—Professor Vane, F.R.S.  
Zoology (Recent and Fossil)—Professor Grant, M.D. F.R.S.  
Philosophy of Mind and Logic—Professor the Rev. J. Hoppus, Ph.D. F.R.S.  
Ancient and Modern History—Professor Beesly, A.M.  
Political Economy—Professor Waley, A.M.  
Law—Professor Russell, LL.B.  
Jurisprudence—Professor vacant.  
Lecturers to Schoolmasters and others—Professors Newman, Madden, De Morgan, and Potter.

Residence of Students.—Several of the Professors receive Students to reside with them, and in the Office of the College there is a register of parties who receive boarders into their families. The register will afford information as to terms and other particulars.

**AWARDS SCHOLARSHIPS.**—In October, 1861, two Andrews Scholarships will be awarded—one of £81. for proficiency in Latin and Greek, and one of £81. for proficiency in Mathematics and Natural Philosophy. Candidates have been, during the academical year immediately preceding, matriculated Students in the College or Pupils of the School.

A Joseph Hume Scholarship in Political Economy of £61. a year, tenable for three years, will be awarded in December, 1860, and in December of every third year afterwards. A Joseph Hume Scholarship in Jurisprudence of £61. a year, tenable for three years, will be awarded in December of 1861, and in December of every third year afterwards. A Ricardo Scholarship in Political Economy of £61. a year, tenable for three years, will be awarded in December, 1860, and in December of every third year afterwards. Candidates must have been, during the academical year immediately preceding, matriculated Students of the College, and must produce satisfactory evidence of having regularly attended the classes on the subject of the Scholarship.

Mr. Laurence Counsel's Prize for Law, 161. for 1861.  
Jews' Commemorative Scholarships.—A Scholarship of 151. a year, tenable for two years, will be awarded every year to the student of the Faculty of Arts, of not more than one year's standing in the College, who shall be most distinguished by general proficiency and good conduct.

College Prize for English Essay, 51. for 1861.  
Latin Prose Essay Prize (Reading Room Society's Prize), 51. for 1861.

Prospectuses and other particulars may be obtained at the Office of the College; also special Prospectuses, showing the courses of instruction in the College in the subjects of the Examinations for the Civil and Military Services.

RICHARD POTTER, A.M., Dean of the Faculty.  
CHAS. C. ATKINSON, Secretary to the Council.  
August, 1860.

The SESSION of the FACULTY OF MEDICINE will COMMENCE on MONDAY, 1st of October.

The JUNIOR SCHOOL OPENED on TUESDAY, the 25th of September.

## RESIDENT GOVERNESS.—A LADY, a

member of the Church of England, wishes for an engagement as GOVERNESS in the Family of a Gentleman or a Clergyman, residing not many miles from London. Her acquirements are English, French, and the Pianoforte, all of which she can teach thoroughly, and Singing to beginners. Pupils under 14 years old would be preferred. The most satisfactory references can be given, and will be requested. Terms, 50 Guinea.—Address to Q. Q. Post-Office, Richmond-road, Dalston, N.E.

## UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, LONDON.—

**PRACTICAL PHYSIOLOGY AND HISTOLOGY,** by GEORGE HARLEY, M.D. F.R.S.—This Course consists of a Series of Microscopic and Chemical Demonstrations of the Textures and Fluids of the Body, and of Demonstrations in Experimental Physiology. Students are exercised in the various methods employed in Microscopical and Physiological Investigation. Demonstrations, Monday and Wednesday from 4 to 5, and every alternate Saturday from 10 to 11 A.M., commencing on Monday, 15th October, Fee 3s.  
JOHN E. ERICHSEN, Dean of the Faculty of Medicine.  
CHAS. C. ATKINSON, Secretary to the Council.  
Sept. 25, 1860.

**MINERALOGY.—KING'S COLLEGE,** LONDON.—Prof. TENNANT, F.R.S., will commence a COURSE of LECTURES on MINERALOGY, with a view to facilitate the Study of GEOLOGY, and of the application of Mineral Substances in the ARTS. The Lectures will begin on FRIDAY, October 2nd, at Nine o'clock. They will be continued on each succeeding Wednesday and Friday, at the same hour. Fee 2s. 2d.  
R. W. JELF, D.D., Principal.

**SURGEONS' HALL, EDINBURGH.**—The INTRODUCTORY ADDRESS will be delivered by Dr. SANDERS on MONDAY, November 6, at 1 P.M.—The Prospectus may be obtained on application to Dr. JOHN STRUTHERS, Secretary to the Medical and Surgical School.

**WESTMINSTER HOSPITAL SCHOOL** of MEDICINE.—The INTRODUCTORY ADDRESS of the Session 1860-61 will be delivered by Mr. POWER, on MONDAY, the 1st of October, at 8 P.M.; and after the Address a Conversation will be held in the Board-room.

Lectures.—Descriptive and Surgical Anatomy, Mr. Holt; Practical Anatomy, Mr. Holt and Mr. Gray; Dental Surgery, Mr. Cleland.—Chemistry, Dr. Marcet, F.R.S.—Surgery, Mr. Bernard Holt and Mr. Brooke, M.A. F.R.S.—Physiology and Physiological Anatomy, Mr. Power—Medicine, Dr. Batham.—Botany, M. Syme, F.L.S.—Comparative Anatomy and Zoology, Mr. Power.—Natural Philosophy, Mr. Brooke, M.A. F.R.S.—Materia Medica and Therapeutics, Dr. Radcliffe.—Forensic Medicine, Dr. Fincham and Dr. Reynolds.—Practical Chemistry, Dr. Marcet, F.R.S.—Midwifery, Dr. Frederic Bird.

**CLINICAL APPOINTMENTS.**—The Offices of House Physician and House Surgeon are open to competition solely amongst gentlemen who have been educated at the Hospital, and who are qualified to practice. They are appointed without the payment of any fee, and are provided with board and lodging in the Hospital free of expense. They hold office for one year.

The entire course of study (including Hospital Practice and Lectures) required by the College of Surgeons and the Society of Apothecaries may be attended on payment of 75 guineas, in two instalments; or perpetual, 50 guineas. Further information may be obtained on application to Mr. Power, 3, Grosvenor-terrace, Piccadilly; or to  
F. J. WILSON, Secretary to the Westminster Hospital.

## ST. GEORGE'S HOSPITAL MEDICAL

SCHOOL.—The WINTER SESSION will COMMENCE on MONDAY, the 1st of October, with an INTRODUCTORY ADDRESS by Dr. PITMAN.

**LECTURERS.**  
Practice of Physic—Dr. Pitman.  
Practice of Surgery—Mr. Tatum.  
Descriptive and Surgical Anatomy—Mr. Pollock and Mr. Gray.  
Physiology, General and Comparative Anatomy—Mr. A. Johnson.  
Chemistry—Dr. H. M. Noad.

The Hospital contains 350 beds. Clinical Lectures will be delivered every evening by one of the Physicians or Surgeons. A Ward is devoted to Diseases peculiar to Women. Pupils have ample opportunity to attend Midwifery cases.

Fees for Hospital Practice and Lectures to qualify for the College of Physicians . . . £21 19 0  
The College of Surgeons . . . 87 3 0  
The Society of Apothecaries . . . 67 4 0  
The College of Surgeons and Society of . . . 106 12 0  
Apothecaries

Pupils who prefer to spread the payment of the Fees for the College and Hall over a period of three years, may do so by payment of 401. the first year, 401. the second year, and 401. the third year. Perpetual Pupils of the Surgeons have to pay an additional sum of 30 guineas the first year; or of the Physicians, 5 guineas. Separate Entries may be made to any one Course of Lectures, or to the Medical or Surgical Practice.

Perpetual Pupils of the Surgeons are alone eligible to be Assistant House-Surgeon for six months, and House-Surgeon for twelve months, without additional fee. Students of this Hospital are eligible to the Office of Obstetric Assistant, who resides and boards in the Hospital, with a salary of 1001. a year. The Obstetric Assistant gives instruction in Vaccination.

**EXHIBITIONS AND PRIZES.**  
The William Brown Exhibition of 401. per annum, tenable for three years, will be open to Students entering to the Hospital as Perpetual Pupils during the Winter Session 1860.

The following Prizes will be offered at the termination of the Session, viz.—  
The Thompson Silver Medal, for Clinical Reports.  
Sir Charles Clarke's Prize for Good Conduct.

Sir Benjamin Brodie's Prize for Surgical Reports of Cases.  
Mr. Lewis Powell's Prize for Medical Reports of Cases.  
A Prize of Twenty Guineas for General Proficiency in Medical Studies, for Students who enter to the Hospital Medical School for the Session 1860.

And for the encouragement of Clinical Study—  
A Prize of Twenty Guineas, for Surgeons' Pupils in their second year.  
A Prize of Twenty Guineas, for Physicians' Pupils in their second year.

\* \* \* Further information may be obtained from Mr. POLLOCK, the Treasurer of the School; or from Mr. HAMMERSON, the Resident Medical Officer of the Hospital.

## MIDDLE-CLASS EDUCATION.

POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTION (LIMITED),  
25, REGENT-STREET, W.C.

MORNING AND EVENING CLASSES, for both Male and Female Pupils, will be OPENED on MONDAY, October 1, 1860, under the direction of the Rev. C. MACKENZIE, A.M.

Prospectus, with Time-Tables, &c., may be obtained on application by a note, inclosing a stamp, to Mr. COAGS, 399, Regent-street.

## GOVERNMENT SCHOOL OF MINES,

JERMYN-STREET, LONDON.

Director—SIR RODERICK I. MURCHISON, D.C.L. &c.  
The Prospectus for the Session, commencing on the 1st of OCTOBER next, will be sent on application to the Registrar. The Courses of Instruction embrace Chemistry, by Dr. Hofmann; Physics, by Prof. Tyndall; Natural History, by Prof. Huxley; Geology, by Prof. Ramsay; Mineralogy and Mining, by Mr. Warrington Smyth; Metallurgy, by Dr. Percy; and Applied Mechanics, by Professor Willis.  
TRENHAM REEKS, Registrar.

## CRYSTAL PALACE.—HALF-GUINEA

SEASON TICKETS, available for the THREE ITALIAN OPERA CONCERTS, and until April 30th, 1861, may be had at the entrances to the Palace; at the Railway Stations; at 3, Exeter Hall; or of the Agents to the Company.

## CRYSTAL PALACE.—ITALIAN CON-

CERTS.—Vocalists, Madlle. TITTONI, Signor GIUGLINI, Signor VALSOVANI, and Signor VIALETTI.

THREE CONCERTS will be given on Thursday, Saturday, and Tuesday, the 4th, 6th, and 8th of October.

On Thursday, RUSSINI'S STABAT MATER will be performed; on Saturday, Selections from IL TROVATORE and MARTHA; and on Tuesday, Selections from DON GIOVANNI and LES HUGUENOTS; commencing each day at Three o'clock.

Conductors—Signor Arditi and Mr. Benedici.  
Admission.—Half-a-Crown each Concert; or in sets for the three days (if bought beforehand), 5s. Reserved seats each day, Half-a-Crown extra; or in sets for the three days (if bought beforehand), 5s. May be had at the Crystal Palace; at 3, Exeter Hall; or by order of the usual Agents.

Season Tickets admitted free.  
\* \* \* Immediate application is requisite to secure forward reserved seats.

## TO LITERARY INSTITUTIONS, &c.—

Mrs. EMILIU HOLCROFT is now making up her LIST of ENGAGEMENTS.—Address 29, SOUTHAMPTON-BUILDINGS, W.C.

## A YOUNG SURGEON, age 26, a Scholar,

Gold Medalist and Prize-man of his College, having served nearly all the practical offices of a London Hospital, and acted as Assistant to a distinguished Physician-Accoucheur, is desirous of commencing PRIVATE PRACTICE in a locality presenting scope for energy. He will feel under great personal obligation to any one indicating (in confidence) the same.—Address Box B, 25, Post-Office, Leeds.

The Advertiser would accept the post of Attendant to an Invalid, travelling or otherwise.

## MATRICULATION EXAMINATION,

UNIVERSITY OF LONDON.—CLASSES are now being formed by a First-Class B.A. and M.D. Printed Notes forwarded Resident Pupils received.—A. Z., Fernham's, 40, Abchurch-lane, Regent's Park, N.W.

## OXFORD LOCAL EXAMINATIONS.—The

CHELTONHAM SCHOOL, founded 1578, has passed all its Candidates, half of them with First or Second Class Honours, without a single failure, in a large number of subjects, including, in every case, the Rudiments of Faith and Religion.  
Sept. 8, 1860. JOHN WATERWORTH, Sec.

## A YOUNG LADY, studying in the Schools

of Art, is desirous to occupy her Leisure Time in TEACHING DRAWING and PAINTING, either in Classes or by Private Lessons, in both of which Methods of Tuition she has had much experience.—Address I. H. M., 25, Great Russell-street, Bloomsbury, W.C.

## TUTOR.—WANTED, a CLERGYMAN of the

Church of England, to BOARD and EDUCATE a BOY fifteen years of age. Being clever, and easily excited, he would require to be managed very judiciously; to be treated kindly, but firmly. A Clergyman, not exceeding forty years of age, in a quiet and unobtrusive manner, with light parochial duties, and all other engagements, would be preferred. None need apply who cannot produce the most satisfactory Testimonials as to experience and character.—Apply, by letter, to Messrs. MURRAY & LOGAN, W.S., 141, George-street, Edinburgh.  
Sept. 18, 1860.

## DRAWING CLASSES FOR LADIES.—Mr.

A. DAVIS COOPER begs to inform his Friends and Pupils that his LADIES' FIGURE and ELEMENTARY CLASSES will re-assemble on Tuesday, October 2nd.—45, Upper Gower-street, Bedford-square.

## THE PRESS.—A Gentleman of extensive ex-

perience at the Newspaper Press, and who has for several years been Sub-editor and general Literary Manager of a first-class Daily paper in Ireland, will be shortly disengaged. Testimonials of the highest character as to literary competency and experience.—Apply, by letter, to Messrs. W. H. Smith & Son, Sackville-street, Dublin.

## TO NEWSPAPER PROPRIETORS.—A

Gentleman, for many years connected with a first-class Provincial Newspaper, and an Author of established reputation, is desirous of AN ENGAGEMENT AS EDITOR to a respectable Country Newspaper; or he would undertake a Sub-editorship, provided that the Editor of a Newspaper was not attached to it. First-rate Testimonials as to character and competency can be produced.—Address, by letter, pre-paid, A. Z., care of Messrs. Hamilton, Adams & Co., Publishers, 23, Paternoster-row, London, E.C.

## TO PRINTERS, BOOKSELLERS, &c.—A

Gentleman in want of the services of a Printing-Printer would find that the Advertiser a very steady and experienced workman who would be glad to assist in Reading and Pressing, and in the Press.—Address J. H., Dean's Library, Westminster-terrace, square.

## THE GOVERNESSES' INSTITUTE

25, SOHO-SQUARE.—MRS. WAGHORN, who has spent many years abroad, respectfully invites the attention of Nobility, Gentry, and Principals of Schools, to the Courses of English and Foreign GOVERNESSES' PIANOS, TUTORS, and PROF. HUXLEY, transferred, and Pupils introduced in Germany. No charge to Principals.

NEWSPAPER

# QUEEN'S UNIVERSITY IN IRELAND. QUEEN'S COLLEGE, GALWAY. SESSION 1860-61.

## FACULTY OF MEDICINE.

Dean of the Faculty,  
**CHARLES CROKER KING, M.D. F.R.C.S. M.R.I.A.**  
The Matriculation Examinations in the Faculty of Medicine will commence on Friday, October 13.  
Arrangements will be made to enable Students who intend to compete for Medical Exhibitions of the Second, Third, and Fourth Years to Matriculate upon the 15th and 17th October. Such Students are, however, requested to communicate their names to the Registrar on or before the 15th October.  
Additional Matriculation Examinations will be held on Thursday, the 5th of November.  
Matriculation is necessary for those Students who intend to proceed for the Degree of M.D. in the Queen's University, or to become Candidates for Scholarships, Exhibitions or Prizes in the College.

## SCHOLARSHIPS AND EXHIBITIONS.

In the Faculty of Medicine Six Junior Scholarships of the value of 50l. each, and Six Exhibitions of the value of 10l. each, are appropriated as follows—Two Scholarships and Two Exhibitions to Students of the first, second, and third years respectively. Also, Two Senior Scholarships of the value of 50l. each, and Two Exhibitions of the value of 10l. each, are appropriated to Students of the fourth year.  
The Examinations for Scholarships and Exhibitions will commence on Thursday, the 10th October, and be proceeded with as laid down in the Prospectus.

Scholars of the first, second, and third years are exempted from a moiety of the Class Fees.  
**HOSPITALS.**—The Hospitals, to which Students are admitted, contain Two Hundred Beds, and are visited every morning by the Medical Professors, who deliver Clinical Lectures.  
In order to induce Medical Students to attend the practice of the Hospitals, the course of their education, the fee for Hospital Attendance and Clinical Lectures conjointly, has been reduced to 2l. for each Session.  
Further information may be had on application to the Registrar from whom copies of the Prospectus may be obtained.  
By order of the President,  
**WILLIAM LUTTON, M.A., Registrar.**

1st Sept. 1860.

# ST. MARY'S HOSPITAL MEDICAL SCHOOL.—The WINTER SESSION will commence on MONDAY, October 1, at Eight o'clock p.m., with an Introductory Address by Dr. TYLER SMITH.

It is a distinctive characteristic of St. Mary's Hospital that its Medical Appointments are conferred upon the Pupils without additional fee. Three Resident Medical Officers are appointed for twelve months, and one, the Obstetric Officer, for six months, all of whom board free of every expense in the Hospital. The money value of these Residences far exceeds as many SCHOLARSHIPS of Fifty Pounds each.

**Physicians.**—Dr. Alderson, Dr. Chambers, Dr. Sibson, Dr. Handfield Jones, Dr. Stierking, and Dr. Markham.  
**Surgeons.**—Mr. Coulson, Mr. Lane, Mr. Ure, Mr. Spencer Smith, Mr. Walton, and Mr. James Lane.  
**Physician-Accoucheur.**—Dr. Tyler Smith.  
**Ophthalmic Surgeon.**—Mr. White Cooper.  
**Aural Surgeon.**—Mr. Toynebe.  
**Surgeon-Dentist.**—Mr. Sercombe.

## LECTURES.

**Clinical Medicine.**—Dr. Alderson, Dr. Chambers, Dr. Sibson.  
**Clinical Surgery.**—Mr. Coulson, Mr. Lane, Mr. Ure.  
**Medicine.**—Dr. Chambers and Dr. Markham.  
**Surgery.**—Mr. Coulson and Mr. Spencer Smith.  
**Physiology.**—Dr. Markham and Mr. James Lane.  
**Anatomy.**—Mr. James Lane and Mr. Georgeen.  
**Operations on the Dead Body.**—Mr. Walton.  
**Dissections.**—Mr. Gascoven and Mr. Davy.  
**Chemistry and Practical Chemistry.**—Mr. Field.  
**Midwifery.**—Dr. Tyler Smith and Dr. Graily Hewitt.  
**Maternal Medicine.**—Dr. Stierking.  
**Botany.**—Dr. Dresser.  
**Medical Jurisprudence.**—Dr. Sanderson.  
**Ophthalmic Surgery.**—Mr. White Cooper.  
**Aural Surgery.**—Mr. Toynebe.  
**Dental Surgery.**—Mr. Sercombe.  
**Comparative Anatomy.**—Dr. Graily Hewitt.  
**Natural Philosophy.**—Mr. Smalley.

**SCHOLARSHIP PRIZES.**—In addition to the Medical Appointments in the Hospital, a Scholarship in Anatomy, of the annual value of 20l., is offered to the Students. Examinations for Prizes will take place at the end of each Session.  
The Fee for the Hospital Practice and Lectures required by the College of Surgeons and Society of Apothecaries, is 80s. 6d., which may be paid by instalments.  
Further information may be obtained on application to  
**GEORGE G. GASCOVEN, Dean of the School.**  
St. Mary's Hospital, August, 1860.

# GERMAN AND MATHEMATICS.—Herr OSCAR VON WEGNER, Professor in Schools and Families of distinction, PREPARES STUDENTS for Examination in the above subjects. He undertakes Translations in German, French and English.—Lessons at 4, Sydney-street, Brompton, S.W.

# GERMAN AND DUTCH, through the medium of French or English, by Dr. KÖSTER, late Professor at the Royal College of Northey and to H.R.H. the Prince of Orange, conversationally and grammatically, in Schools, Families, and Classes.—Cours. Assoc. Lit. Lw., 126, Aldersgate-street and 55, Gailford-street, W.C.

# GERMAN, FRENCH, ITALIAN.—9, OLD BOND STREET.—Dr. ALTSCHUL, Author of 'First German Reading-Book,' dedicated to Her Grace the Duchess of Sutherland, &c. M. Philol. Soc. Prof. Eloquence.—TWO LANGUAGES TAUGHT in the same lesson, or alternately, on the same Terms as one, at the pupil's or at his home. Each language spoken in his PRIVATE Lessons, and select CLASSES for Ladies and Gentlemen. Preparation for all ordinary pursuits of life, the Universities, Army, and Civil Service Examinations.

# SCIENTIFIC BOOKS.—Gratis and Post-free to all parts of the United Kingdom.—E. & F. N. SPON'S CATALOGUE BOOKS, New and Second-hand, relating to Agriculture and Rural Affairs—Agriculture, Assurance, &c.—Architecture and Building—Chemistry—Civil, Mechanical, Military and Naval—Engineering—Geography—Mining—Metallurgy—Architecture and Naval Affairs—Ornamental Art, Trades, Manufactures, &c. &c.—London: E. & F. N. Spon, 16, Bucklersbury.

# MILLER'S CATALOGUE OF BOOKS for OCTOBER, just ready, Gratis and Postage-free for one postage-stamp, containing a select Collection of Choice Books in History, Biography, the Drama, Wit, Humour and Fæstive, Old Poetry, Early English Literature, Books of Prints, and Miscellaneous.—JOHN MILLER, Bookseller, 43, Chandos-street, Trafalgar-square.

# UNIVERSITY OF GLASGOW.

SESSION 1860-61.

The Very Rev. THOMAS BARCLAY, D.D., Principal, will publicly OPEN the UNIVERSITY on MONDAY, the 5th of November, at Twelve o'clock Noon.

The UNIVERSITY CLASSES will meet as follows, daily, unless otherwise specified:—

## I.—LITERATURE AND PHILOSOPHY.

Commencing Tuesday, November 6.

Classes	Hours	Professors
Humanity, Junior.....	3 and 11 A.M.	Mr. Ramsay.
— Senior .....	9 A.M. and 1 P.M.	
Private .....	1 P.M.	
Greek, Junior, Tyrotes .....	12 Noon	Mr. Lushington.
— Senior .....	10 A.M. and 2 P.M.	
Private .....	2 P.M. (10th Nov.)	
Logic and Rhetoric .....	9 and 11 A.M.	Mr. Buchanan.
Moral Philosophy .....	3 and 11 A.M.	Dr. Fleming.
Political Economy .....	10 A.M. and 2 P.M.	Mr. Wm. Thomson.
Natural Philosophy .....	9 and 11 A.M.	Mr. Blackburn.
Physical Laboratory .....	10 A.M. to 3 P.M.	
Mathematics, Junior .....	12 Noon	Dr. Rogers.
— Senior .....	10 A.M.	Mr. Grant.
Natural History .....	12 Noon, Tu, Wd., and Th.	Dr. Rankine.
Astronomy .....	1 P.M., Wed.	
Civil Engineering and Mechanics .....	3 P.M.	

## II.—THEOLOGY.

Commencing Tuesday, November 6.

Divinity, Junior.....	9 A.M.	Dr. Hill.
— Senior .....	12 Noon	
Hebrew, Junior .....	10 A.M.	
— Senior, Public .....	3 P.M.	Mr. Weir.
Private .....	9 A.M., Tu, Wd., and Th.	
Arabic .....	11 A.M.	Dr. Jackson.
Ecclesiastical History .....	11 A.M.	

## III.—LAW.

Commencing Tuesday, November 6.

Roman Law .....	9 A.M.	Mr. Skene, Advocate.
Scottish Law, Feudal .....	9 A.M.	

## IV.—MEDICINE.

Commencing Tuesday, November 6.

Practice of Physic .....	10 A.M.	Dr. Macfarlane.
Chemistry .....	10 A.M.	Dr. Anderson.
Practical Chemistry .....	12 Noon	
Chemical Laboratory .....	9 A.M. till 4 P.M.	Dr. Allen Thomson and Demonstrator.
Anatomy .....	11 A.M.	Dr. Walker.
Anat. Demonstrations .....	1 P.M.	Dr. Walker.
Practical Anatomy .....	10 A.M. to 4 P.M.	Dr. Walker.
Botany (in Summer) .....	12 Noon	Mr. Lister.
Surgery .....	12 Noon	Dr. John A. Easton.
Forensic Medicine .....	2 P.M.	Dr. Pagan.
Maternal Medicine .....	3 P.M.	Dr. A. Buchanan.
Midwifery .....	4 P.M.	Dr. Mackenzie.
Institutes of Medicine .....	6 P.M.	Dr. W. Brown.
Eye (Waltonian Lectures) .....	6 P.M.	

## MATRICULATION.

By Regulation of the Senate, every Student must, at the beginning of the Session, Matriculate by enrolling his name in the University Album, at the Library before joining any Class. The Library will be open, for the purpose of Matriculation, on and after Wednesday, October 17, from Eleven to Three o'clock daily, with the intervention of the Holidays at the Sacrament.  
DUNCAN H. WEIR, A.M., Clerk of Senate.  
Glasgow College, Sept. 22, 1860.

# CRYSTAL PALACE SCHOOL OF ART, SCIENCE AND LITERATURE.

THE NEW TERM WILL COMMENCE ON OCTOBER 1st. Pupils can now be inscribed for the following Classes—Ladies or Gentlemen:—

Drawing and Water-colour Painting .....	Mr. E. Goodall.
Figure Drawing and Modelling .....	Mr. W. K. Shenton.
French, &c. .....	M. A. Roche.
German .....	Dr. Ch. Semler.
Italian .....	Signor G. Volpe.
English Language and Literature .....	Rev. Philip Smith.
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LONDON, SATURDAY, SEPTEMBER 29, 1860.

## LITERATURE

*Report of the Association for Promoting the General Welfare of the Blind, 127, Euston Road. Printed for the Association.* (Judd & Glass.)

THE blind leading the blind has been an axiom of contempt from the first dawn of wisdom to the present day.

It is not pleasant, in a general way, to have a fixed idea or a fundamental principle upset: it belongs to the phenomena of earthquakes; nobody can tell what will be shaken next. We like to have something finally decided, about which men's minds need be no more in doubt; a little bit of certainty, like a morsel of the true cross, ready at hand for all emergencies; a chip of truth, short, decided and portable. The motto about the blind leading the blind has long been one of these precious beads, which all the faithful might tell in perfect peace of mind. They must do so no longer.—Miss Gilbert has broken the spell. And who is Miss Gilbert that she should have done this thing? Miss Gilbert is a lady of position, fortune, and intelligence, a daughter of the Lord Bishop of Chichester. She is blind. Like the feeble health of Florence Nightingale, the blindness of Elizabeth Gilbert has been providentially turned to the good of a wide and suffering class.

We went the other day to Miss Gilbert's Asylum, in Euston Road; and there we saw a blind man set off on an errand to the other end of London. We saw another messenger just returning, and giving an account of his mission with so much brightness and intelligence, that we had at first no suspicion that he could not see. In reply to our inquiries how he could be trusted abroad, the Superintendent said: "Oh, they will take a message to any part of London, even to the most crowded parts of the City."—"But do they never meet with accidents?"—"No; hardly ever." Some old notions suddenly gave way. We had so long thought of the blind either in the figures of Samson Agonistes and the Bard of Scio, or in those of the poor wretches of our London streets who ask pity in a bit of pasteboard, or whine at one end of a string which terminates in a dog, that we felt something like a genuine surprise at seeing these sightless human beings walk and work like any other men and women. "And they go without a little dog in a string?"—"Oh, yes." In fact, we found "the blind man's dog," as to any true need there may be for it, to be a touching myth, something like the tradition of Belisarius begging by the wayside for a penny. The blind, when they go out, have a staff to guide themselves. The little dog is only a stage property.

With the desire to bring the blind into community with the rest of their fellows, the Association in Euston Road has been founded by Miss Gilbert. Early impressed with the conviction that the sense of isolation felt by those who were deprived of the use of any faculty was the worst part of their lot, she desired to make them as much like other people as possible,—to naturalize them in the ranks of industry. This has been the aim of all her efforts;—that blind people should be able to live and work like their neighbours, instead of feeling that there is nothing else for them, as a general rule, except to go out with a dog in a string, or to stand with a board round their necks appealing to passers-by for "Pity to the poor blind."

Miss Gilbert devoted herself and her fortune

to this excellent work. She began very quietly, not wasting any of her funds in machinery to set her work in motion. She took a small house with a shop-front in the Euston Road, where the articles made by blind people who had learnt to work at any trade should be sold at the usual retail prices charged by other dealers in the same wares. This was a sound principle to begin upon, and has been one secret of the success of her plan. It is a mistake to try to make Charity do the duty of Justice. It would be unfair to undersell the regular dealer; it would be foolish to expect general customers to give more for articles than they were actually worth—more than they could be purchased for elsewhere. Moreover, it would have been making the blind workman a permanent burden on the sympathy and philanthropy of his neighbours, instead of being a competent workman who deserved and received the fair price for his labour. Charity did not come lawfully in at that stage of the business. Charity must do her own work, or else suffer as a busybody, doing mischief instead of good. There was plenty for Charity to do; the only hope was, that Charity would be un-failing and "never tire nor stop to rest," as good Dr. Watts sings. What was it then that Charity could and fairly might do?

We will explain. Although many blind persons are taught in schools, asylums and institutions, some handicraft (there are very few within scope of their powers, and those not very remunerative), when they leave the walls of their charitable home they have no connexion, no regular employment; they are thrown into the great struggle for a livelihood in which nine-tenths of the people of England have to contend to keep their footing as best they may. The blind workman is not on equal terms with his neighbour who can see. He does his work at a disadvantage: there is no sight to direct the hand to the tool which has been laid down, or the material that has to be gathered up. All must be done by the touch, which, however delicate, refined, or even preternaturally sharp, it is and must be more deliberate in its operation than the faculty of sight. A blind person, no matter how skilful, consumes more time to produce the same result than a workman who can see,—and time is money in matters of work. A blind person, then, is not on equal terms with one who has the use of his eyes, and even supposing he could find customers for as much as he can do, he could still earn but half a living. At first when he begins to work, friends and neighbours will exert themselves to procure him employment. They feel that he has a claim on their sympathy. It is an appeal which spurs their benevolence. But benevolence cannot stand any long-continued or heavy strain upon it. It is the peculiarity of charity and generosity that they resent any dependence upon them. The blind protégé becomes a burden, and sinks down either into a licensed beggar, in favour of whose helplessness the shame of begging has been remitted, or else he is swept into the workhouse without any place in the world and of no use to anyone in it—an item in the permanent burden which those who work have to carry. We imagine that the unexpressed feeling of "being of no use" is the true secret of the intense dislike the generality of poor people have to "coming on the parish,"—not to the hardship, not to the confinement, but to the sense of degradation from usefulness.

Here comes in the work of Miss Gilbert's Charity. She seeks to supply the inequality betwixt the seeing and the blind worker. She

called her house "An Association for Promoting the General Welfare of the Blind." She gave 2,000*l.* as the beginning of its endowment. She worked for twelve months silently; she agreed to take as much work as the blind who followed a business could produce, to the amount of 8*s.* 6*d.* a week to men, 7*s.* 6*d.* to women, paying them the full retail price for all they did—giving them the profit that the retail shopkeeper considers remunerative. The goods were sold again at the same price,—the endowment of the foundress going to work the establishment, and to supply the extra profit allowed to the blind workman. The regular retail dealer has nothing to complain of. He is not undersold in any way; the public derive no more advantage from dealing at the blind depot than by going anywhere else: it is only the blind workers themselves, who from the enlightened exercise of a just benevolence, receive the materials for their labour at the cost price, and are paid for their work exactly what it is worth in the retail market: the society bearing the expense of the shop without making a profit on the goods they sell.

At the end of twelve months, Miss Gilbert made an appeal to the public to enable her to develop this small beginning into an establishment on a larger scale. She made over the entire control of her institution to a committee of influential and able men, who, eighteen months afterwards, gave the society its full shape, and decided upon a body of rules marked by quiet and sound good sense. These rules work well.

In addition to the first idea, that of simply disposing of the work of such blind persons as had learnt a business, the object of the institution was enlarged to teaching those unacquainted with a trade some industrial art, and to introduce other trades hitherto unpractised by the blind; also to support a circulating library, consisting of books in various kinds of relief printing. Those individuals who are very indigent are allowed access to this library for nothing; those able to afford it pay a small subscription; but the same principle works throughout,—to make them as little objects of charity as possible, and as much like general members of society. There are few things so calculated to develop morbid thoughts and sentiments, and to make persons incapable of the healthful exercise of the faculties they enjoy, as the idea of being in an exceptional condition and objects worthy of pity. The more blind persons, and all others who labour under specific afflictions, can be made to forget that their case is exceptional, the better it is for them. When they have accepted whatever privation may have been sent to them, as the condition under which they have to lead their lives as well as they can, the bitterness and the self-consciousness are taken away, and half the hindrance is relieved.

The superintendent of the institution, Mr. Hanks Levi, is blind; well calculated, therefore, to understand and help those under his guidance. He has greatly developed and improved the available resources of the institution. He has made journeys over England, and even to France, to learn any improvements in the mode of working the usual blind occupations, and to discover fresh branches of industry in which the blind may be profitably employed. He has added seven new trades which the blind never adopted before, and he has greatly improved and developed old trades.

The establishment has been enlarged by taking in additional space. Some of the work can now be done on the premises, and there is a home attached, for those of the workers who have no

proper place to live in, on the payment of a moderate rent. With increased funds increased accommodation could be given; at present, the number of those who can be received is very limited. No expense has been incurred for ornament or cheerful decoration, for objects of beauty are of no use to inmates who live in perpetual darkness.

Beyond the front shop, there is a long room, where, behind a substantial counter, a number of men are at work, making brooms and brushes of various kinds, from the humblest scrubbing-brush to the dainty velvet or hat brush. The men are working fearlessly and dextrously with edge tools of very formidable appearance—gigantic shears for clipping the bristles, sharp knives for fashioning the beds of the brushes, and lathes for turning the backs. Except that, as we said before, the blind workman requires more time, his work, as work, is equal to that done by the workman in the full possession of his sight.

We were taken upstairs to the women's room, where a number of women sat or stood engaged in rather ornamental work. One was making little objects in coloured beads on twisted wire, so pretty that it was not until we had left the room that we recollected that the worker could not see! Some were plaiting straw; others making objects in stamped leather, extremely pretty; others were making hassocks; but, excepting one, all bore melancholy traces of their affliction. The eyes of most were disfigured, crippled,—all but one, who, though sightless as the rest, retained a bright, clear, intelligent pair of eyes. It required some assertion to make us believe that she shared "the total eclipse" of her companions.

In another room we saw a man deaf as well as blind. He had been quite deaf for not more than three years, and had almost forgotten how to talk; he was cheerful, intelligent looking, and working hard at some job of carpenter's work. We were taken into the schoolroom and library. At a table sat six or eight youths, with their teacher, taking a reading-lesson: their book, the Bible, printed in relief. A piano took up one side of the room; but none of those then present were musical. A large glass-case contained objects of natural history, by the handling of which those born blind are able to form some idea to themselves of what birds and insects and animals are like. Those of our readers who may have any stuffed birds or small animals that they are disposed to give away, would be turning them to real use, and giving great pleasure, if they would send some of them to the little Museum, at 127, Euston Road, near St. Pancras Church.

Waste land reclaimed from sea or moss has an interest independent of its actual worth, as a trophy of man's industry and skill; how much more precious, then, the skill and intelligence reclaimed from conditions that seemed to make its exercise impossible, that seemed to doom the possessors of intelligence to the gradual blotting-out of the faculties they possess for want of the means to exercise them! Every human being in this institution is so much waste faculty reclaimed, cultivated and turned to profit. Blind people, we were told, are very sociable and affectionate in their disposition; they frequently marry amongst themselves, neither husband nor wife ever seeing the face of each other or of their children. How sad and touching is that picture of the blind husband and father in Rushton's lines—

To love the wife you cannot see,  
To be a sire, yet not to know  
The child that climbs upon your knees!

The children, however, rarely inherit the blind-

ness of their parents. Recent statistics tell us that the number of blind persons in Great Britain is upwards of thirty thousand, and not above the average of five in a hundred have the means of living without work,—the rest are dependent on what they can earn, or upon national or private charity.

Miss Gilbert's Association, though it aims at raising the inmates out of the condition of dependents on charity, is not, and from its nature cannot be, self-supporting, because the usual retail profit goes to the work-people; their work pays them, but the expenses of the concern have to be met and sustained from endowments and donations. The more business the establishment can do, the more work-people can receive employment; there are upwards of two hundred applicants at this moment: rejected for want of space and means.

*A Hand-book of Mottoes borne by the Nobility, Gentry, Cities, Public Companies, &c.* Translated, and Illustrated with Notes and Quotations, by C. N. Elvin, M.A. (Bell & Daldy.)

THE family motto, whatever may have been its original purpose and signification, is now little more than a pretty riddle, whereby people may be perplexed in their attempts to discover its affinity to the individuals to whom it belongs. Sometimes it is intelligible enough to fairly describe the bearers; at others, it is a record of the honour of an ancestor which has been tarnished by his heirs. Now and then it is to be found curiously in antagonism with the qualities of the present owner; and even where this is not strictly the case, it is as often an epigram as an oracular truth. The most admonitory of mottoes is no more a rule of conduct among ourselves, than the obligation of "noblesse" in France was binding on men to the observance of the virtues by which alone nobility is illustrated.

If some of these devices would puzzle a whole coterie of sphynxes, we may conjecture that they would find no less difficulty in determining the origin of the motto itself. The national war-cry may have commenced the fashion. The terse religious invocation, the superscription on the banner, the legend on the temple, all these are of the order. What belonged to the nation may have become appropriated by families or individuals. If Isis had her riddle over the portals of her house at Sais, why should not sentences as pregnant with meaning, yet often as mysterious, be adopted by heads of houses? To deserving members of "houses" they are now awarded by those quaint officers, the Heralds, who, with equal alacrity or indifference, will prepare arms and legends for heroes or for very unheroic personages who have become millionnaires. As for the origin of it all, the Heralds probably know as much about it as the sphynxes.

To the oracular we leave the explanation of the oracles. "I am all that hath been, that is, and that shall be, and no mortal hath lifted my veil," puzzled the pious and profane people of the days of Isis, as many a motto in the Peerage and cognate books might those who would seek to penetrate the mystery. Mottoes, however, have their comic aspect, fortunately; and we prefer dwelling on what is amusing rather than fruitlessly cudgelling our brains with what is abstruse. The aspect is to be found in the mottoes which humorously refer to the name of the bearer. Occasionally, when this is effected in French, there is a betrayal of imperfect training in that language on the part of the founder of the house. Thus, in the various branches of the Jameses, we detect a slippery pronunciation, as in "A *jamaïs*" of the Dublin

Jameses, and in the still worse "*J'aime à jamais*" of another branch sprung of that illustrious root. Here is a good sprinkling of similar pungenencies:—

"A *jamaïs*. For ever. JAMES, of Dublin, bt.  
A la bonne heure. In good time. BONKOR.  
A more *floresco*. I (MOORE) flourish according to my custom. MOORE.  
A wight man never wants a weapon. WIGHTMAN.  
Adde *calcar*. Apply the spur. SPURRIER.  
Aime ton frere. Love thy brother. FREER.  
FREER.

*Alnus semper floreat*. May the Alder always flourish. ALDERSEY.  
*Ama Deum et serva mandata*. Love God and keep his commandments. SYNROT.

*At spes solamen*. Yet hope is my solace. HOP, of Balcomy.

*Audax ero*. I will be bold. BOLDERO.

*Auspice Teuero*. Under the auspices of Teucer. TUCKER.

*Balanovous Δενδρον Βαλλει*. The tree drops acorns. BALLY.

Be in the van. BEVAN.

*Bene factum*. Well done. WELDON.

*Bien est qui bien fait*. Well is he that does well. WELLS.

*Bonne est belle assez*. Good is handsome enough. BELLASTSE.

*Cavendo tutus*. Safe by being cautious. CAVEDISH, on which this motto is a play.

*Cheris l'espoir*. Cherish hope. CHERRY.

*Clareo foveoque*. I am bright (i.e. *Clare*), and I cherish. CLARE. Crest—A sun.

*Cœur fidèle*. A faithful heart. HART.

*Con can an*. Wisdom without reproach. CON-CANON.

*Corda serata pando*. I lay open locked hearts. LOCKHART, bt.

*Couper fait grandir*. Cutting causes growth. COOPER.

*Crede cornu*. Trust the horn, or Trust Hornby. HORNBY.

*Cressa ne carcat*. Let not Cressa (*Cresswell*) want. CRESSWELL.

*De hirundine*. From the swallow. ARUNDEL.

*De marisco*. From the (Marsh) bulrush. MARSH.

*Deum cole, regem serva*. Worship God, revere the king. COLE, Earl of Enniskillen.

*Dieu est ma roche*. God is my rock. ROCHE, bt.

*Dieu pour la Tranchée, qui contre?* (If) God (be) for the Trenches, who shall be against them! LE-POER-TRENCH.

Do ever good. DOVER.

*Esto fidelis usque ad finem*. Be faithful even to the end. FYDELL.

*Et agere et pati fortiter, Romanum est*. Both to do and to endure bravely is (a) Roman's part. ROMER.

*Fabula sed vera*. A story, but a true one. STORY.

*Fare fac*. Speak, do, i.e. Say it and do it. FAIR-FAX, b. FAIRFAX.

*Fides montium Deo*. The trust of the Hills is in God. HILLS.

*Fight on, quoth Fitton*. FITTON.

*Finis coronat opus*. The end (or *Finnis*) crowns the work. FINNIS.

*Firmus in Christo*. Firm in Christ. FIRMIN.

*Fluminis ritu ferimur*. We rush on like a brook. RUSHBROOKE.

*Fons et origo*. The Fountain and source. LA FOUNTAINE, bt.

*Frere ayme frere*. Frere love thy brother. FREER.

*Gare la bête*. Beware of the beast. GARBETT.

*He who looks at Martin's ape, Martin's ape will look at him*. MARTIN. Crest—An ape looking in a mirror.

*Homo sum*. I am a man. HOMAN, bt. MANN.

*I am alone*. LONE.

*Leto aere florent*. They flourish in glad air. AYRE.

*Latet anguis in herba*. The snake lurks in the grass. ANGUISH.

*Manus justa nardus*. A just hand is a precious ointment. MAYNARD, v.

*Mars denique victor es*. Thou Mars (*den*) at length art the conqueror. MARSDEN.

*Monachus salvabor*. I a monk (*house*) shall be saved. MONKHOUSE, of Newcastle-on-Tyne.

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*Mors ærumnarum requies.* Death is rest from afflictions. RUMNEY.

*Mos legem regit.* Custom rules the law. MOSLEY, bt. *Noli irritare leones.* Do not exasperate the lions.

LYONS, b. LYONS, of Ledestown. *Pares cum paribus.* Like to like, i.e. pairs; in allusion to the name—PARES, of Hopewell, co. Derby. FIRTH.

*Pauper non in spe.* Not poor in hope. POORE. *Rosa petit calum.* The Rose seeks heaven. ROSE.

ROUS. *Salvus in igne.* Safe in fire. TRIVETT, of Penhurst.

*Semper hilaris.* Always merry. MERRY. *Semper sitiens.* Always thirsty. DROUGHT.

Set on. SETON, of Fordingbridge. *S'is te mordent, mords les.* If they bite thee, bite them. MORLEY, of Marrick Park, Yorkshire.

*Sumus.* We are. WEARE, of Hampton. *Templa, quam dilecta.* Temples, how beloved.

BUCKINGHAM, d. NUGENT, b. TEMPLE, bt. TEMPLE.

*Terrere nolo, timere nescio.* I wish not to intimidate, and know not how to fear. DERING, bt. *Toujours gai.* Ever gay. GAY, of Thurning Hall, co. Norfolk.

*Toujours jeune.* Always young. YOUNG. *Tout hardi.* Quite bold. M'HARDIE.

*Turn non ævere.* TURNOR. *Turris mihi Deus.* God is my tower. TOWERS.

KELLY. *Ut palma justus.* The righteous is like the palm. PALMES.

*Venabulis vinco.* I conquer with hunting-spears. VENABLES.

*Vernon semper viret.* Vernon always flourishes. VERNON, b. VERNON, of Hanbury Hall. This motto, though appearing at first to assert somewhat arrogantly the unfading fortune of the Vernons, still, when dissected (*Ver non semper viret*), warns them that human prosperity, like the fairest season of the year, is liable to changes for the worse.

*Vincenti dabitur.* It shall be given to the conqueror. VINCENT, bt.

The last of the above is not the least appropriate of the whole; but the list might have been enlarged. By way of instance, we will point out the motto of the Holdens. The crest is a cross, round which is a hand, and beneath the most happy legend, "Teneo et Teneor"—*I hold and am Hold-en.* We might adduce many others.

Occasionally, the compiler illustrates the mottoes by quotations from various sources. The following is a sample, wherein he seems to level a hard blow at the selfish caution of the Scotch:—

"*Audi, vide, sile.* Hear, see, be silent. TIL-  
LARD.

Ay, free off han' your story tell,  
When wi' a bosom cronie;  
But still keep something to yourself  
Ye scarcely tell to onie.

Conceal yourself as weel's ye can  
Frae critical dissection;  
But keek thro' ev'ry other man  
Wi' sharpened sly inspection.—BURNS."

Other mottoes are illustrated by anecdotes:—

"*Every bullet has its billet.* VASSALL, of Milford, co. Southampton. These words were used by Col. Spenser Vassall, when leading on his troops to the assault of Monte Video, in order to encourage them under a severe fire. Scarcely had he spoken when a bullet struck and killed him. His family, in consequence, assumed the sentence for their motto, and received as an augmentation the breached bastions of a fortress with the words 'Monte Video' above."

Again:—

"*In promptu.* In readiness. DUNBAR, bt. TROTTER. According to a family tradition of the Trotters, a brother of Lord Giffard being suddenly sent for by James II. of Scotland, rode from his

mansion, which lay at a considerable distance from court, on a fast trotting horse. Having presented himself before the King sooner than he was expected, James asked in surprise how he came there so quickly. 'I trotted,' said Giffard; and in remembrance of this reply, and of his zeal, the monarch gave him the name of Trotter, with the motto 'ready.'"

To some he does not ascribe the full number of bearers. "Luceo, non uro," for instance, was conferred on Lucien Bonaparte when he came to England during the First Empire. It is true that a satirical meaning was connected with it; and the Prince himself was unwilling to own that he "made a great show, but without much reason for it."

It is pleasing to find many mottoes perpetuating the memory of how the fortune of the founder of the house—which personage, by the way, is not the first known man of the family, but the first who became wealthy—was reared into a double greatness, namely, its own and that which it conferred on its owner. Of these is the device of the Astons, of Bescot, who made a fortune by coal-mining: "E tellure effodiantur opes"—*Our wealth is dug out of the earth.* Such, too, is the "Ex sudore vultus" of the Swettenhams, whose earliest respectable, that is fortunate, ancestor was a delver. In one sense, such also is the "Favente Numine Regina servatur"—*By the favour of the Deity the Queen is preserved*, of Capt. Micklethwait, who having rendered some agreeable personal service to the Duchess of Kent and the Princess Victoria at St. Leonards, in 1832, was created a baronet in 1838. The legend, however, is not an historical truth; the bearer of it rendered no service to a "queen." It would be nearer to fact had it run, "Favente Regina Micklethwayte honoratur." To literal verity we come once again, however, when we meet with the motto of the Guests, "Ferro, non gladio," which distinctly indicates that by iron works and not by military achievements was the great wealth of that family built up. So, the bistoury for a crest and the words "Incidendo sano"—*I cure by cutting*—show equally well by what surgical process wealth worthily came to Kincaid, of Kincaid. Finally, "Ways and Means" excellently describes the Buckinghamshire Lowndeses, whose first great man was for many years Chairman of the Committee so called in the House of Commons.

Mr. Elvin gives a long list of owners of the motto, "Malo mori quam fedari," but he omits the original bearer, namely, Ferdinand, of the illegitimate branch of Arragon, the ruler of Naples some four centuries ago. It is also the epigraph, as the French would call it, of Mr. Bentley, the publisher. Another publisher, Mr. Trübner, has adopted this fashion, and on his title-pages we now read, "Habent libelli sua fata,"—which we take to be especially addressed to the critics. We will observe, too, that while some crests agree, the mottoes differ. Of this the compiler has not taken any notice. The crest of the Gilberts, of Eastbourne, Sussex, is a squirrel quietly engaged with a nut, and below is the British legend "Teg y hadoch"—*Peace is pleasant*; the same crest belongs to the Haslers, also of Sussex, but the motto is, "Qui nucleum vult nucem frangat"—*Let him break the nut who wants the kernel.*

From what we have above written and cited our readers will have gathered that this is a pleasant and useful book; we have only to add, that it may become still more so by some enlargement of plan and greater copiousness of anecdotal illustration.

*Correspondence of Giuseppe Giusti*—[*Epistolario di Giuseppe Giusti, &c.*] Arranged by Giovanni Frassi, and preceded by a Life of the Author. 2 vols. (Florence, Le Monnier.)

A few years back we called attention to a complete posthumous edition of the works of the politico-satirical Tuscan poet, Giuseppe Giusti, —a man to whom Italy owes much, both for being among the first who helped to infuse the grace and vigour of the popular idiom into the worn-out platitudes affected by the old Cruscant, and for having, by his trenchant satires and the lofty tone of feeling pervading his writings, powerfully quickened the movement of her social and national regeneration. Giusti died in the very summer-tide of his age, while more than half his work lay untouched before him, in the March of that fatal '49, whose blighting breath of disappointment too surely quickened his way to death.

No one could have been better qualified to fulfil minutely and lovingly the task of Giusti's biographer than Signor Frassi, united as he was by twenty-four years' close friendship with the subject of his memoir. Their intimacy began, in 1826, at the University of Pisa, where both were students, light of heart, head and pocket, and both eager, fervent patriots, ever ready to protest against the drowsy despotism which then hung over their country. Signor Frassi has accordingly executed a clever sketch, clearly outlined and tenderly tinted, and abounding in the slight but decisive touches which attest the truth of the likeness. It commences with a few pages of autobiography, found among Giusti's papers, and as yet unpublished, containing a fragment of the memories of his early childhood.

Having once before given, in the article above alluded to, some jottings of the Poet's life, we shall not linger over the pleasant matter this fragment contains further than to give our readers Giusti's description of the priest to whose care he was entrusted at seven years old, when his childish propensity for idleness and breakneck exploits had already become so strong as to make his father consider a change from the home-atmosphere as the best remedy for him. Little Giuseppe's education when he went to the priest was not in a very advanced stage, and of somewhat miscellaneous composition, for he says: "The first things my father taught me were the notes of music and Dante's episode of Count Ugolino." With the *régime* of his reverence, however, came a very different sort of intellectual drilling, as will be seen by the following passage:—

The priest was at bottom a good man; he had a smattering of learning, and was above all a man of the world. He had been a tutor at Genoa and Vienna for fourteen years, and whether his scholars had caught anything of his ways I know not, but assuredly he had caught something of theirs. Moreover, he was vehement, choleric, perfectly German in his mode of teaching. I was sent to him to be taken care of and instructed, and he, on the contrary, set to work to break my spirit. . . . I was then seven years old, and scarcely knew how to read after a fashion, and to scrawl my own name. I stayed with him for five years, and brought away a good many floggings and a perfect knowledge of the spelling-book, not a shadow of the Latin he had taught me in those five years, a small glimmering of history which he had not taught me, and, into the bargain, a good deal of fretfulness and distaste for everything, and an entire persuasion that I was good for nothing. The priest had a good number of books, and I was always thumbing them over for the sake of the portraits and vignettes they contained; but I read little or nothing. . . . His reverence used to walk a great deal, and dragged me after him for miles

and miles, which bored and wearied me immensely. In after life I became and now am a great walker, and a passionate lover of solitary rambles, especially in the mountains, and assuredly this passion I owe to my old master. He had also a habit of sleeping after dinner in summer; and as he would not trust me alone, and had no one in whose charge he could leave me, he used to keep me shut up in the dark in the room where he took his *siesta*. Children have no mind to sleep, and I, thus condemned to be shut up there like a chaffinch, had no other comfort but that of racking my brains and building such castles as a child may. This love of romance-spinning, which I have ever since had, and which I shall surely carry to my grave with me, undoubtedly took its rise at that time. On the evenings when the priest did not remain at home, he spent the time with other priests, with whom he sat muttering over the Breviary. I, in sheer desperation, used to pull out the first book I could lay hands on in those bookshelves which were twin sisters to the famous library of Fra Cocuzza; and there I would read away, half yawning, half crying. Among the books I thus chanced upon, I preferred the Lives of the Saints, especially of such as were Martyrs. . . . When his reverence did not go out, in order that I might not tire of staying in-doors, he made me repeat his Office with him; and this was so much to my taste that it is a mercy if later in life I did not abjure my faith in memory of the torments I then went through.

The two volumes before us contain upwards of four hundred letters, a great part of which are addressed to names of European celebrity: among them we find Sismondi, Manzoni, Azeglio, Niccolini, Poerio, Balbo, Gioberti, &c. Giusti's epistolary style is a model of Italian prose, simple, pithy and playful. The letters seem dashed off at a heat,—yet the fact is, that they were, like all his compositions, the result of much thought and unwearied correction. Signor Frassi says that he never wrote a letter of any kind without first making a rough draft of it; and that when the letter was one that he really cared about, he would make two such rough copies, full of erasures and corrections—nay, he is known to have gone through this copying process three times before finally transcribing and posting the letter, and he would even correct the rough copy left in his hands after the letter itself was gone!

Giusti was wont to gather much of the materials in which he wrought from the lips of his fellow-townsmen of the pleasant, little, old city of Pescia, and from the peasantry of the beautiful hill-country around it. While he counted among his intimates nearly every man of intellectual note of his time in Italy, Signor Frassi tells us that—

two of his dear friends at Pescia were Benedetto Checchi, the shoemaker, and Lorenzo Marini, the baker. From these and similar worthies he was enabled to collect, not only the living forms of our language, but also a store of shrewd sayings, which are ownerless because the offspring of many, and because they die out in time if some writer does not rescue them from the attacks of it, by placing them where they can produce a good effect. Giusti's skill in making one of these smart sayings come out to advantage was often as admirable as the thing itself, which would seem like a gem set by Benvenuto Cellini.

Poets in their apprenticeship may here learn after what manner Giusti wrote his famous satires. "He would compose," says the biographer, "at any time, in any place, walking about, humming to himself perhaps. He would be sketching the outline of a *schermo* [Giusti was wont to call his cutting assaults on the evil geni of his country *schermi*, or jests], whilst seeming to listen to some serious discourse,—nay, I think (may the ladies pardon me!) that sometimes he would even string a strophe together while sitting beside one of their fair

sisterhood." Like Molière, Giusti was apt to try the effect of his first sketches on the first he could lay hands on. He would read them "to his friends, male or female, to people of the lower classes, to any one. Like the great French dramatist and many another fellow anatomist, he drew much wisdom from experimentalizing *in corpore vili*. After these first trials, "he would put away his work and try to forget it, that he might form a better judgment of it afterwards. When some time had passed, he would return to his labour, doing and undoing, writing and re-writing, wisely weighing the construction of the whole, from the ideas down to the commas, which sometimes under his hand became ideas. The *lima labor* was no plague to him, but rather a pleasure; and few have known how to use the file with so masterly a touch as he, so gently and so well as to leave no traces behind." As a sample of Giusti's patience in correcting his poems, Signor Frassi gives a fac-simile of two of the stanzas of the satire called 'Sant' Ambrozio,' all trellised over with erasures and interlinear corrections, which amply bear out the truth of the statement. The result of this persevering and patient retouching (let young aspirants of the unkempt rough-and-ready school give ear!) was a style at once so powerful and so pliable, so graceful and vivid, yet so free from affectation, that it opened up new and living veins of harmony in his beautiful mother-tongue, and was eulogized by Manzoni in the assertion, that were there only ten such writers as Giusti in Italy, the regeneration of her literature would be complete.

Giusti has much in common with Béranger as regards his aim, and some of the means he used to reach it. There is the same shrewd sagacity pointed with greater terseness of expression,—the same fervent, patriotic spirit,—the same passionate attachment to the unadulterated vernacular idiom of his mother-tongue which animated Béranger, when he exclaimed in his 'Biographie,' "La langue! la langue! c'est l'âme des peuples!" But the Italian's is the choicer nature of the two,—higher, less selfish, more refined. He has less of joyous *verve*, of sensuous geniality,—less flickering of vine-crowns and clashing of cymbals in his verse,—less of brilliant colouring, but a more thoughtful mingling of chiar-oscuro,—less of brilliant sparkles, more of steady fire,—less of the Gaul, more of the Tuscan, in short. And, moreover, there is the shadowy charm of a great sadness, the inalienable birthright of all the true genius of his time and country, lying at the foot of his brightest poetic creations, and doubling their beauty by reflection in the mirror of its bitter waters.

The following fragment of a letter addressed by Giusti to Béranger in 1847, and probably found among the rough copies which, as we have seen, he so carefully preserved, will show how strong was the Italian satirist's admiration for the great French *chansonnier*:—

I have long had a lively wish to write to you, both as an admirer of your genius, and as a writer of verses of the lighter kind, which, although they cannot be said to owe to you their birth and outward likeness, yet may assuredly thank you for no small part of their nurture. You, born of the people, the people's friend, who seek the people's praise alone, have been able to give to the popular song of France the vigour and soaring flight of the ode, without change of string, without affecting to transplant it from the *Caveau* to the *Académie*, without letting the people as they sing it guess at the growth of its wings. Happy you, who have been able to see the fruit of your labours in the days of July, and to twine the civic crown with the laurel on your venerable head! I, who was born under very different conditions, but who love

my country as you do yours, have felt myself urged on from my boyhood to gibe at the errors, prejudices and baseness of all kinds that fell in my way, either from inborn aversion to them or from a rebellious disinclination to follow the leading of the crowd. Without caring to keep to the ruled lines of this man or that; without any scruples of reverence for such words only as have received the baptism of printer's ink;—I have tried to walk by the help of my own legs, and to handle to my purpose the language I found on my lips.

We must make room for two more extracts. The first shall be from a letter addressed, in 1843, to the poet Niccolini, just after the publication of his great tragedy, 'Arnaldo da Brescia,' had stirred up the wrath of every priest and despot in Italy. Out of what a far distance do such sentences as the following seem to come, when only the other day we heard of the finest scenes of this noble play being acted on the boards of Turin and Florence theatres, the actors welcomed with shouts and half-smothered with flowers; and in the latter city the venerable octogenarian poet himself sharing in bodily presence the honours paid to his greatest work!—

I have been able to get your 'Arnaldo' honoured by the prohibition of the temporal power, as it will assuredly be before long by that of the spiritual. Such should be the fate of a book which points out the plague-sores afflicting both, in a country governed by such paralytic rulers as can neither hold nor flay their subjects. In the iron age, when wrathful potentates fell out, the sacrifice over which they made peace was human life; in this paper age among quarrelsome *im-potentates* the sacrifice is—a book. As regards the intellectual side of the question, I can add nothing to what you have said; and I will confine myself to congratulating you on your courage in writing thus, at a time when folks are raving about popes, priests, nay, even friars! These noxious weeds, these very cancers of the body social, will not, I believe with you, ever again attain to such a growth as to kill it utterly; but it is well that from time to time there should come an arm ready with knife and hatchet to cut them out. Our country dames, when they find one of their silkworms inert, and as it were, petrified by a disease they are subject to, are wont to say that it has "turned friar" (*rimfratito*), and the same might be said of the Guelphs *redivivi*, who do such honour to our times and to human reason at large. I should be curious to see what effect your book will have at Rome, where they are in fear of being forced to drop the bare bone they have gnawed till now. Worthy of you, too, as a fervent, but not blind lover of your country, are the hearty lashes you bestow on the historical German school and its manufacturers, who choose to call themselves Romanticists, and whose madness has reached such a pitch that they enjoin artists, when painting sacred subjects, to stick to the pattern of those wooden-fleshed Madonnas and smoke-dried Christs, which are left to us by the Greek school, of the time of the Lower Empire. . . . These fellows pretend to arrive by a process of reasoning at the same point which our good ancestors reached by the impulse of faith!

The last passage we have marked for extract occurs in a long letter to an intimate friend, whose Christian name only is given in the heading as Signor Pietro. It gives a full and highly amusing description of a pedestrian tour made by the poet and a college friend of his in the picturesque and beautiful hill-country which lies between Pescia and San Marcello. The narrative concludes with a sketch of a rustic ball given by a country Notary, to which the two friends were especially requested to come "in velveten jacket and thick shoes." The following description of the worthy Notary's refreshment-room on the grand occasion is a clever bit of Dutch painting:—

The room appropriated to the *buffet* was the kitchen. In one corner of it stood the maid Betta, deeply engaged in plucking a quantity of thrushes.

Further on were other women, with their heads over the meal-trough, kneading dough; by the fire stood a country fellow, with his shirt-sleeves turned up, and an apron as big as a royal proclamation (*motu proprio*), roasting chestnuts:—to be sure the apron had a spot or two of blood upon it, but the blood does not spoil the simile. Against the wall was a huge rack full of stewpans, pots and trenchers, wreathed and intertwined with laurel. On the opposite side hung against the wall a range of kettles, saws, guns, frying-pans, spades, pick-axes, shoes of undressed leather, saucepans, long rapiers and halberds, and under these was pasted up an almanack, the ballad which begins "Passa da casa e fistiani" [a Tuscan version of "Whistle, and I'll come to thee, my lad!"]—a sonnet for the festival of the patron saint, and, hard by it, a picture of St. Anthony and Company. In the middle of the kitchen, a great table was set out with flasks, half-pint cups, decanters, uncut cheeses, plates of *brigidini* [a sort of crisp wafer-cake of high antiquity], a large napkin for the *polenta*, a grater, and a hat [the grater was probably intended for stewing the parmesan cheese over the *polenta*; but it is difficult to conceive what could have been the use of the hat]. Meanwhile, either on account of some draught of wind or of the strong flame that caused a movement in the air, the smaller feathers were flying hither and thither, on the plates, on the glasses, into the fire and the pan in which the chestnuts were roasting; and this caused great offence to the chestnut-roaster-in-chief, who calls out to the maid, "I say, in all the years you have been plucking birds, haven't you learnt to do it better than that?"—"What's the matter with you, I should like to know?" answered she, short and sharp.—"What's the matter? aint you sending all your feathers about the room?"—"Marry, come up! is it I that send 'em? You must have something to growl about, I suppose. You'd better look after your chestnuts there, and not overroast them, as you always do!"—"Mind your own business, chatter-box! There go the feathers again! Pull the basket further that way, stupid! Don't you smell what a stench they make? Everything will smell of burnt feathers." Meanwhile, in the next room, there was a great hubbub of voices; but we were listening to the above dialogue, and did not pay attention to it. It was the Notary who had come back with the guests that he had gone to fetch; and into the kitchen he came, fuming and fuming, and driving before him three great strapping country wenches. "Oh, are you here, gentlemen?" said he. "What's the matter now? hold your tongues! [to the maids] what is the use of scolding? Come, girls! make haste and take something. Betta! take care with those birds! you'll cover everything with feathers!"—"There! you see; I told you so," cried the chestnut-roaster triumphantly.—"I tell you what!" cries Betta in a rage, "anybody may pluck the birds that chooses; I'll have nothing to do with 'em!"—"I'll pluck them myself," quoth the Notary, drawing out his words. "I'll pluck them. No great matter, truly! Beg pardon, gentlemen; but really with these people it is such a wretched look-out. Girls! I say, eat something, or drink; there's plenty here of all sorts; I can't do Martha's work and Magdalene's too!" [a common Tuscan proverbialism when the speaker has more on his hands than he knows how to manage]. And in a moment he had snatched the thrush out of Betta's hand, and seated himself with the basket between his knees. The five or six birds that were left were plucked in no time: one would have thought the Notary had done nothing else all his life long.

There is abundance of clever and characteristic notices of contemporary literature and Continental politics scattered up and down these volumes; and we can confidently recommend them to all who care to trace the hopes and struggles of the Young Italy of '48, unfolding as they did the germs of that wiser and less feverish nationality now astir throughout the Peninsula, with such bright promise for the future. As a specimen of style, too, it would be hard to name any modern Italian writer

more worthy the attention of such as desire to make a careful study of the language.

*Shall the New Foreign Office be Gothic or Classic? A Plea for the Former. Addressed to the Members of the House of Commons.* By Sir Francis E. Scott, Bart. (Bell & Daldy.)

AMONGST the host of pamphlets on this theme none is likely to be so effectual as this offering from Sir Francis Scott, armed as its author is with long previous study and travel, as well as earnestness, and the eloquence that comes from it. This question is of far deeper interest than the style in which a particular edifice shall be built. For a question so confined, the great public would never care; nor should we, as servants of the public, dream of extending our approbation or disapprobation beyond a line. But a deeper interest is at stake. The question is—shall the Gothic style, which on every side is reviving around us, be put to the official ban? Shall the national style be publicly repudiated and condemned? Every man who lives in a house must feel his interest in such a fact.

Lord Palmerston has taken up arms against Gothic; and to him Sir Francis Scott replies. Our readers will be glad to have a summary of what he has written. His exposures of Lord Palmerston's ignorance of the history of Gothic and Classic architecture will amaze and amuse the public.

Sir Francis's objections to the Anglo-Classic style we condense, and applaud for their supreme common sense. Its ornamentation is additional, not constructive. It is deduced from a corrupted foreign style. It ignores the use of brick and beauty of constructional colour. Its soul is concealment—in a complicated building the supports, in a simple one the material. It is indebted to book-pedantry rather than Nature for ornament. It uses cement—the groundwork only for colour in real Classic—to hide vile materials, to the ruin of constructive honesty and decorative taste. Dealing with these shams has degraded the architects who practise it. Heartily, for our own part, do we subscribe to the necessity of an architect being something of a *workman*, and practically studying outline, relief and colour. The knowledge of these can only be got by practice. What should we think of a composer who was ignorant of instrumentation? Very effete are the gentlemen who pilfer and combine odds and ends to make the patchwork of old styles mis-named Anglo-Classic. Let them be content, Sir Francis Scott advises, to carve, paint and chisel, before they build and plan—as Giotto, Orcagna, Brunelleschi and Buonarroti did. To what result of humbug the present system has got let our author speak:—

"The Neo-Classic style appears to have forgotten that proportions and lines are no more Architecture than rhyme is Poetry, and does not choose to perceive that the more diversity there is in the wants and requirements of modern life, the more varied in range and power of expression should that architecture be that attempts to deal successfully with modern buildings. Whether it is Belgrave Square—with each side trying to look like one 'noble mansion,' while the separate and independent doorways give the lie to the uniformity of the floors above; or the British Museum, the pride of Bloomsbury,—with the melancholy, dingy, Ionic portico, that gives one a cold in the head to think of, the pompous meanness of its sham granite and porphyry staircase which you are 'requested not to touch,' its lath-and-plaster ceilings, painted in imitation of what they are not:—private buildings or public, one is as false as the other; and Anglo-Classic has a deal to answer for!"

Such is Anglo-Classic. Greek and Gothic

are the only perfect styles as requiring the union of painting and sculpture in due subordination. Their construction and ornamentation were governed by one leading idea, by one essential principle, so that the whole is in harmony with its parts, and inspired with the same objects, feelings and intentions. As symbolizing a higher and holier thought, Gothic transcends Greek in its religious phase; which, being more indefinite, is less self-evident, but equally effective to the Christian beholder. "Hence arises a noticeable peculiarity, that, whereas in early and genuine Greek Art invention and execution are generally on a level,—in Gothic, even in the Italian branch, the executive faculty is never equal to the conceptive."

How the *Quattro-Cento* is but transitional, and rather a phase of painting and sculpture than a definite architectural style—albeit of the loveliest, tenderest and most refined nature—is next insisted upon, and its decadence to the *Cinque-Cento* pointed out; the last being a re-introduction of the Orders of Imperial Rome, under equally demoralized princes and nobles. This is what the Premier wishes us to follow:—

"Fantastic and overcharged with Bernini and Longhena, maniacal under Borromini, it sank at last to the confectionary churches of the Jesuits, its patrons, and the dead level of the eighteenth century, when national architecture had perished out of every land."

By its lineal descent, through the transitional style, from the Anglo-Norman, the English-Gothic, with an endless freedom of local variation, progressively developed as it grew—its constructive and decorative features dictated by convenience and not caprice—became, in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, paramount, and indeed alone in the land, and adapted itself to our climate and requirements of use. We know when and how, under those patrons of all falsehood and pretension, the Stuarts, the Neo-Classic came in; but the domestic Gothic is, without a date, gradually developing itself with the requirements of the ages as they passed, and keeping an idiosyncrasy of its own, distinct enough from foreign contemporary examples, by peculiarities of outline, detail and plan. If these matters of history do not show Gothic to be, in the strictest sense, our *National* style, it would need, we must say, more powerful cramming than Lord Palmerston even has submitted his candour and good sense to, to see what can be called a National style.

Sir F. Scott holds, that Gothic is the style of liberty and economy. Because its verticality and power of free lateral extension are equally in harmony with its principles of construction; its exteriors are expressive of the interiors' uses, and not according to a formal canon of lifeless symmetry; one floor may show an arcade of glass, the next three-parts wall and but one of window: no material is too costly, none too humble. Let us think how a pure Classic building, in what is questionless our national material—brick—would look! Its language and expression vary with the latitude. Its ornamentation is free,—its elevations know no law, save that of intelligent adaptation to internal convenience and conformity with the requirements of climate and common sense,—its *façades* accommodate themselves to all irregularities of curve or unevenness of site with equal facility, beauty and success. Thus much for its liberty; for economy, take the plainest Classic work—say Baker Street—and compare it with this:—

"With a pointed discharging arch—over a flat-headed entrance-door—filled in with ceramic colour;

with a band of tiles to mark the floors; with varied grouping and size of windows with chamfered jambs, and perhaps a mullion; with dormer-windows in a high-pitched roof, and here and there a gable to the street; and area-railings in tough wrought iron; you would see Gothic by a right application of the commonest of materials, almost equal even this wretched Anglo-Classic specimen in cheapness, surpass it in convenience, and offer—instead of sad and wearisome uniformity—variety of colour, picturesqueness of outline, and evidence of thought."

In economy of ornament, Gothic architecture never produced anything so wasteful of labour as the decorations of the sham round-headed arches of the first-floor windows at the so-called "Rag and Famish," or the balustrades above. Supposing it were worth looking at, the ornamentation of the Pall Mall Club is thrown away by its situation beyond vision. Our author's remarks on this head are conclusive of the subject:—"It stands to reason that all the clumsy devices attendant upon the use of a trabecal and columnar screen of ornament to a fenestral style must be more expensive than the mere decoration of constructive features." The length of the bearing of the entablatures at the "Carlton" is an example of the destructive effect of such a system. With reference to expense, Sir Francis Scott suggests to Members of the House that, when Lord Palmerston brings "a pet columnar plan" in his pocket, and attempts to force it on their indulgence, *without being tendered for*, merely giving a verbal guarantee that it shall cost less than Mr. Scott's plan, they shall, "in the name of all that is business-like," reject it at once. He is not, like many critics, able only to pull down, but has a practical idea of his own, which any architect will indorse. Thus:—

"I unhesitatingly assert that recessed and moulded doorways, figure sculpture and foliage-carving, or bas-reliefs in sunken pannels, near the eye of the spectator; great mullioned windows in native marble; discharging arches in coloured tiles or brick; a corbelled eaves-course to carry the gutter and terminate the roof; buttresses (if requisite) to relieve the walls and cast a shade; and the temperate use of constructional colour, will give a richer effect to a Gothic edifice, than gorgeous screens and layers of piled-up columns and entablatures, redundant friezes and ponderous cornices (with their useless and dangerous projection) can possibly give to a Classic one,—at infinitely less expense, and with this triumphant advantage in principle (which just makes the difference between right and wrong!) that the Gothic ornaments its construction, and the Classic constructs its ornamentation."

As to the excess of cost over the estimate for the Houses of Parliament—pet cry of the Neo-Classicists—we are reminded that the estimate was for less than half the present building; that successive powers extended their demands upon the architect for decorations, ventilating towers, increase of accommodation, &c.; that the workmanship is admirable; and, yard for yard, it has cost less than the new Louvre, and is more imposing in outline at a distance, and more satisfactory in detail when we are near. Admit that the principles of Gothic architecture were unrecognized when the former was designed in 1836, and that it professed an imitation of the Later Perpendicular style when that was decaying, "and let us wonder that the only demerit of such a Palace is its want of repose!" Taking Barry's work on the conditions under which it was constructed, no one can deny that it is satisfactory. Monotonous and restless as it is, only compare the New Westminster Hotel with it for dignity, beauty and true constructiveness! But Barry was not a Gothic but an Eclectic architect at heart, and made his work according to order. We heartily agree with the following estimate of "Barry's

Pinafore"; and would add to the second example the admirable Schools for St. Martin's parish, erected by Mr. Wylde, in Brownlow Street, Long Acre. A noble work, perfectly showing what may be done in brick on Gothic principles, and, before it was spoilt by filling in the openings of the roof arcade, elegant and grand, and economically constructed:—

"But would it not be futile to expect *first-rate Gothic* design from the architect of the Treasury-buildings in Whitehall? As that is but a re-facing, there are others to blame: but in front of the grand scale of the two-storied Banqueting-House of 1620, it is feeble and contemptible indeed. That eternal stylobate treated as a story, the useless columns on it cut in half by the projection of the window-caps, the frivolous and expensive stone-cutting in frieze and cornice, the rows of inaccessible vases up among the chimneys—really, the whole front is a warning to Anglo-Classic architecture not to meddle with that which Anglo-Gothic has made peculiarly its own, viz. the artistic and natural treatment of ranges of small rooms; as is so beautifully exemplified in the college-fronts at Oxford. To conclude with an example of economy of ornament, and of a type of edifice—adapted from an inferior epoch of Gothic art, yet—well suited to the exigencies of a London atmosphere, I will instance Mr. Hardwicke's buildings at Lincoln's Inn, erected in the year 1845, of the commonest materials, of the simplest construction, of the grandest effect—and I will ask Anglo-Classic Architecture what *she* would look like, on that scale, if reduced to plain walls and windows; and I hope she will confess that she is not fit to be seen unless when got up regardless of expense."

The author then proceeds to show that, *historically*, Gothic is the style of liberty. This is done by an enumeration of dates. It was complete in England in 1220 (date of Salisbury Cathedral); developed itself ecclesiastically for two centuries, and domestically for a third; died out under Henry the Eighth, before 1540. In France perfected itself about 1170 (Paris and Chartres); died under Francis the First. In Flanders it came later, and lasted till 1520. In Germany and Spain adopted in 1200 and 1220, and died under the paternal government of Charles the Fifth before 1530. Those who patronized the successor of Gothic, *Renaissance*, we need not name. The same thing holds good in Italy; and beyond denial the following is true:—

"The Gothic Broletti and Palazzi Pubblici of Italy, the Trade-halls and Town-halls of Flanders of the fourteenth and first half of the fifteenth centuries—models of magnificence, truth, convenience, and construction—were erected by the most democratic communities the world had seen since the extinction of the analogous republics of Greece. The life, the soul, the meaning of Gothic Art is Liberty!"

Sir F. Scott does no injustice to the revived Classic style in its best examples; but protests against the slavish adoption and ill application of its principles amongst us. Some eloquent remarks on Greco-Roman work, and on the ancient use of brick and its wonderful durability, also on the beauty of terra-cotta window dressings, and facilities for coloured combinations, follow this. There can be no doubt that Gothic manages honestly to own the chimneys, which Classic hides and is ashamed of: that it is favourable to Sculpture:—

"We will take the lateral porches of Chartres Cathedral, circa 1300, against the façade of St. Peter's at Rome, of 1612, and that of St. John Lateran at Rome, of the date 1730. Now, will any Donaldson, or Tite, or Pennethorne—will any professional crammer of the Palmerstonian memory—dare to say, that the grave, expressive, solemnly-draped figures of the former do not more excite our reverence and awe, and are not a more cordial and noble tribute to the worth of sculpture, and its

due position in architectural compositions, than the breezy apostles of the later style attitudinizing along a balustrade, or its dancing-master saints pirouetting on a pediment?"

Here is a receipt for a Neo-Classic building:—"Take a square wall of the cheapest attainable bricks, cut rows of equal holes in same for windows, add on stories, per pattern, as required; then tell a lie in cement all over front and flanks, and score with stone-like joints to make it a good one:—this will give the necessary construction. For ornament serve up triangular or circular-headed pediments in stucco for the windows, paste on a plaster cornice—it is immaterial whereabouts, for cornices, in Palladian, are independent of a roof; carry up semi-columns or pilasters in brick, coating the same thickly with cement; run entablatures across in lath-and-planking, with mouldings in plaster, and abstain from sculpture and colour as much as possible. N.B.—If a Pediment be ordered by the customer—as in this style they are merely a finish to a front and not the termination of a gable—back the same with a high and broad slate roof to neutralize the raking lines, and open window in centre of tympanum to show that it masks a story. If you get an unlimited order, you may add more pediments at the sides [as at Spencer House], and wherever there may be room!"

Trenchant is the comparison between the times when Gothic and its rival flourished: we commend it to the advocates of the latter. An accusation of unfairness and jobbery is made against Lord Palmerston, inasmuch that he is not content with his legitimate influence as Prime Minister, but has got himself represented by the Chairman at the Board of Works which supervised the Foreign Office plans, and a Gothic design his Lordship has declared he will oppose with all his power. He is no judge, but a partizan:—

"Lord Palmerston's influence in the House, and out of it, is overwhelming; his denunciations of Gothic architecture, in season and out of season, have been unsparing; so, as a fair specimen of his Lordship's historical and artistic acquaintance with the subject, I beg to offer a quotation from his speech of August 5, 1859, on the new Foreign Office arrangements, charitably concluding that the Premier slumbered while being 'crammed':—'The Gothic style might be admirably suited for a monastic building or a Jesuit college. It was not suited, either externally or internally, for the purpose to which it had now been proposed to apply it.' Now this assertion reads like a joke, and happens to be absolutely wrong both in theory and in fact! Neither in Italy, Sicily, nor Austria,—the strongholds of Romanism,—are there, I believe, conventual buildings in occupation in any other than the Classic style. And as for Jesuit colleges in Gothic—the noble Lord perhaps is not aware that the Order was not founded and Ignatius Loyola appointed General till 1540, under a Bull of Paul III.; at which date Pointed architecture was on the eve of extinction in Spain, and in Italy had been defunct a hundred years! Gothic would have been stifled under the rules of Jesuitism; which admired in the practice of the Classic Revival a spirit akin to its own! Indeed, in modern times, the Ultramontane party (Jesuits included) have formally protested, by means of their organs in the press, against the use of Gothic architecture as being heterodox and alien from the practice and customs of Rome. And, as regards the latter half of the above quotation, History shows that the Pointed style, and it alone, was applied to the very purpose for which we now require it, by the most intelligent, artistic, and independent of Christian nations at the summit-level of their autonomy and freedom."

Of course a contradiction is all that need be given to his Lordship's assertion, that Gothic "was imported from abroad"; the telling appeal to the vulgar he knows so well how to make:—

"But what can you expect from a noble Lord who calls the monotonous aggregations of dingy bricks and dingier stucco, in the Kensington suburbs, 'beautiful buildings in the new parts of London!'"

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Lord Palmerston's motive in the pertinacity he displays, which is beyond the mere wilful spirit of party opposition to a project that originated on the other side of the House, is next inquired into, and presumed to be an objection to the self-dependence and freedom from the official routine and red-tape system which Gothic Art exhibits. We are congratulated that this personal distaste, founded upon pure caprice, is not to have power, but the decision of the question left to the House, and not to the whims and fantasies of the Prime Minister for the time, but for which, indeed, the Foreign Office would already be a reality. We hope it may be so; but the autocratic way in which the subject has been treated, in perfect contempt of the House of Commons, looks ill for the wish.

*Narrative of the Embassy of Ruy Gonzalez de Clavijo to the Court of Timour, at Samarcand, A.D. 1403-6.* Translated, for the First Time, with Notes, a Preface, and an Introductory Life of Timour Beg, by Clement R. Markham. (Printed for the Hakluyt Society.)

A rare fragrance of old travel is in this volume. It is redolent of the days when men believed in castles built of solid gold, in nations of Amazonian archers, in kings pavilioned on the plains of Tartary more august and powerful than all the buried Cæsars. The good knight Clavijo, of Madrid, tarried awhile in the East when a Christian Emperor still sat on the throne of Constantine, when a giraffe had never yet been seen in Spain, when silken Samarcand was a cynosure, at least on the ripe side of the earth. The world had then half-forgotten the Goths: it had scattered irreverently the ashes of Greece and Rome, whose mortuary urns were more precious than the splendours of Byzantium or the newer glories of Castile; but it was full of admiration for that other Hyksos, sprung from the rainless tracts of Central Asia, which spread its dominions from Damascus to Delhi, and ruled even beyond those imperial limits. Spanish literature was then in its germ. Santilla had not yet composed his 'Serranas'; no great historian or poet had appeared; not a single traveller of veracity or importance had written. Clavijo, therefore, stands on the threshold of a dimly-lighted epoch; and, with the aid of reports at Rhodes, rumours at Trebizond, courteous guides and sandal-wood torches, we journey with him to the Court of the great Lord Timour Beg, there to see wonders, to eat horseflesh, and to behold the justice of the mighty illustrated by the hanging of certain malefactors in the midst of a sumptuous festival.

It was in the year 1403—as romancists have it—that Ruy Gonzalez de Clavijo, with two colleagues, was despatched to Timour's Court, and he laudably determined to write a full, true, and particular account of all the countries he passed through. We have, therefore, an itinerary of his voyage from Cadiz to Constantinople, and across the Black Sea,—of his journey from Trebizond to Samarcand, and of the spectacles he there witnessed. He did not go, however, merely to see marvels; but had sundry Spanish boasts to sound in the ear of the giant Tartar. He told him of the King, his master, followed into the field by six thousand knights with golden spurs,—of a bridge in Spain forty miles broad, on which thousands of sheep found pasture—alluding to the land under which the Guadiana flows until it appears again,—of a city surrounded by fire and built on water, meaning Madrid, which was encircled by a wall of flint and abounded in springs. Still, he could say little or nothing to excite

the surprise of a potentate who, beginning with chess and horsemanship, ended among the most dreaded kings of men. It is curious to note how respectfully Clavijo enumerates his conquests before opening the narrative of his own mission. On a May morning he embarked in a carrack, with his colleagues, at the port of St. Mary, near Cadiz,—sailed away under a castle-fretted coast, was beaten about by a great storm—amid which lambent flames played on the masthead, and the voices of men were heard in the air,—visited Rhodes to hear news of Timour, and reached Constantinople at the end of October! There, in a lofty, carpeted chamber, softened with leopard-skins and embroidered pillars, they had audience of the Christian Emperor, and in the churches inspected a variety of relics, which Clavijo devoutly describes, repeating all the lore attaching to them. He saw, of course, the garment for which the knights of Pilate cast lots, and the tears of the three Marys; and he put faith in whatever he heard. Thus he listened to a story concerning the late Emperor, who made war against his son, in alliance with a Turk, whose son was also in revolt. The young men were captured. "When this happened, the Turk put his son's eyes out; and the Emperor had compassion on his son, and did not wish to hurt him, but ordered him to be put in a dark prison, and finally caused him to lose his sight with hot basins." From the capital of this interesting monarch, the ambassador, after some critical navigation, arrived at Trebizond, where the Emperor was hospitable, and where the Spaniards indulged in an analysis of Greek heresies. Among other naughtinesses, the clergy marry, though, it is true, not more than once, and with virgins. "When their wives die they do not marry again, but remain widowers, and they are very unhappy for the rest of their lives." They err, moreover, in the doctrine of baptism; "and when any one dies who has done evil in this life, and is a great sinner, they dress him in cloths, and change his name, that the devil may not know him."

In Armenia they fell among Turks, and were most hospitably entertained. The Turkish cavaliers in the various towns on their route sent them abundance of meat, bread, milk, cream, eggs, and honey, with "much fruit," and an immoral superfluity of wine. At Arsinga, indeed, "the lord of the city," a magnate in blue silk robes, with a crest of gold, delighted to see his attendants tipsy, and would have enjoyed the sight of three ambassadors delirious. This Arsinga, by the way, was situate on a plain, "near a river which is called Euphrates, which is one of the rivers that came from Paradise." And here the Knight Clavijo began to learn something personal, by hearsay, concerning the magnificent Timour Beg: for example—how he conquered Arsinga. He marched to the town with an immense army, and demanded tribute, declaring he would shed no blood provided the gold and silver were laid at his feet. This being done, he requested the principal citizens to visit him in his tent, and, not violating his promise to shed no blood, he buried them all alive, pillaged the place, and pulled it down. The admiration of the Spanish envoy, upon hearing these particulars, was unbounded. Thence they advanced to the city of Calmaria, "which was the first in the world after the flood, and there, as elsewhere, they were well entertained, and the people gave the ambassadors lodging, and food, and horses," for "all the land belonged to Timour Beg." Thence away to Khoi, in the Persian province of Azerbaijan, still the flourishing centre of a rich and fertile district. Then they met an embassy proceeding from the Sultan of Babylon to the Court of

Timour Beg. Among the presents to be delivered was a giraffe, "which creature is made with a body as large as that of a horse, a very long neck, and the forelegs much longer than the hind ones." It could eat the leaves from the top of a tree, and "to a man who had never seen such an animal before, it was a wonderful sight." From this point they began to traverse a beautiful country, full of orchards and vineyards, arriving at Tabreez in June, having already been thirteen months on the way, and finding there a palace, "in which there are twenty thousand chambers and apartments." Thence, hastening towards Samarcand, they were smitten on the plain with a wind "so hot that it seemed as if it came out of hell,"—passed the towers built of mud and human heads,—left behind them the mountain-glen whose soil is sown with turquoises,—found the great men everywhere whipping the populace to stimulate their courtesies to the strangers,—crossed the region of the Turcomans, and planted their feet beyond the Oxus. Here began an ovation to the representatives of the Castilian king; and penetrating the hills styled "gates of iron," Clavijo was moved to rapture. "Say if a great lord, who is master of these gates of iron, and of all the land that is between them, such as Timour Beg, is not a mighty prince!" Moreover, he believes that there actually were, in former days, iron gates swung across the passes. But we now reach Samarcand, early in September. The ambassadors entered in state; they passed under superb archways; elephants with castles on their backs, banners, regiments of troops, and other glorifications, attended their progress, until they arrived in front of a beautiful palace. There, sitting on the ground, under a portal, was the Terror of the East:—

"Before him there was a fountain, which threw up the water very high, and in it were some red apples. The lord was seated cross-legged, on silken embroidered carpets, amongst round pillows. He was dressed in a robe of silk, with a high white hat on his head, on the top of which was a spiral ruby, with pearls and precious stones round it. His eyesight was bad, being so old that the eyelids had fallen down entirely."

They afterwards began to feast:—

"They brought much meat, boiled, roasted, and dressed in other ways, and roasted horses; and they placed these sheep and horses on very large round pieces of stamped leather. When the lord called for meat, the people dragged it to him on these pieces of leather, so great was its weight, and as soon as it came within twenty paces of him, the carvers came, who cut it up, kneeling on the leather. They cut it in pieces, and put the pieces in basins of gold and silver, earthenware and glass, and porcelain, which is very scarce and precious. The most honourable piece was a haunch of the horse, but without the leg, and they placed portions of it in ten cups of gold and silver."

A basin, so large that one man could not carry it, was placed before each guest, with salt, gravy, and thin wheaten cakes; and whatever he could not eat he was bound to send to his lodgings. "So much food was placed before them, that if they had taken it away it would have lasted them for half a year." Then they went home, with knights as their attendants, and Timour received the Castilian presents, among which Gibbon says there was "a suit of tapestry which eclipsed the pencil of the Oriental artists." However, nothing could eclipse their luxury. Clavijo was enchanted with it, and can scarcely command language to speak of the palaces, the silken tents, the gold and silver tables, the rose-coloured hangings, the tasselled canopies, the pearls, emeralds, turquoises, and rubies bespangling all. And what high jinks at the Court of the sublime Timour! At his dinner-parties an attendant kneeled before the guest, plying him with cups

of wine, telling him he is guilty of bad manners if he refuses; bidding him wash down the roast horse and rice with unbroken draughts, and citing their master as an example. The consequence of these "big drunks," as the negroes would have called them, is stated by Mr. Markham to have been that "in three days nearly all the Mohammedan sovereigns of Central Asia died of *delirium tremens*." We can well believe it, unless Clavijo exaggerated monstrously. The festivities of Samarcand, indeed, were characteristically barbaric. After a feast, "one of the Meerzas of the lord came with a silver basin full of their silver coins, and they scattered them over the ambassadors, and over the rest of the company; and when they had done this they put what was left into the skirts of their clothes." But these festivities were as nothing in comparison with the grand October celebration, near the camp of Timour, on the plains. Streets of tents were pitched, and in the midst an incomparable pavilion, "three lances high," supported by twelve poles, "each as large round as a man measured round the chest," and there were silken turrets at the corners. "This pavilion was so large and high that it looked like a castle. At one of the revels, when Timour's wife was present, the drinking was such that some of the men fell down drunk before her, and this was considered very jovial." They also brought "great quantities of roasted sheep and horses, and other dressed meats, and they ate all this with much noise, tearing the pieces away from each other, and making game over their food"; but Timour found the celebration rather monotonous, so he ordered a number of gallows to be set up among the tents, and selected certain people to be pleasantly and expeditiously hanged, to encourage the others. The first was a defaulting chief magistrate; a councillor offered 400,000 pieces of silver for his pardon, which "the lord" accepted,—but after taking the money he ordered the councillor to be hanged up by his feet until he died. Thus a little variety was introduced into the jubilee. Another relief to Clavijo's narrative is the portrait of a Tartar queen at the beginning of the fifteenth century:

"She had on a robe of red silk, trimmed with gold lace, which was long and flowing, but without sleeves, or any opening, except one to admit the head, and two arm-holes. It had no waist, and fifteen ladies held up the skirts of it, to enable her to walk. She had so much white lead on her face that it looked like paper; and this is put on to protect it from the sun, for when they travel, in winter or in summer, all real ladies put this on their faces. She had a thin veil over her face, and a crested head-dress of red cloth, which hung some way down the back. This crest was very high, and was covered with large pearls, rubies, emeralds, and other precious stones, and it was embroidered with gold lace, on the top of which was a circlet of gold, set with pearls. On the top of all there was a little castle, on which were three very large and brilliant rubies, surmounted by a tall plume of white feathers. One of these feathers hung down as low as the eyes, and they were secured with golden threads, and, as she moved, they waved to and fro. \* \* Three ladies held her head-dress with their hands, that it might not fall on one side."

Towards the end of November the ambassadors quitted Samarcand, well pleased with their entertainment, but doubtful whether so much eating and drinking were good for body or soul. In March 1406 they reached the Court of the King of Castile in Alcalá de Henares; and in due time, in the year 1582, this Narrative was "printed in Seville, in the House of Andrea Piscioni." It is one of singular historical interest, as involving the birth of a literature of travel in Spain. Mr. Markham has performed his task well, supplying many

necessary elucidations in the notes. A map accompanies the volume, tracing the route of the Clavijo Embassy from Cadiz to Samarcand.

*An Introduction to the History of Jurisprudence.* By D. Caulfield Heron, LL.D. (Parker & Son.)

Jurisprudence, or the Science of Laws, is a subject the study of which has been grievously neglected amongst us. Our practising lawyers are too much pressed in the professional scuffle, and too fully occupied in acquiring a knowledge of the Statutes and judicial decisions which are from day to day working momentous changes in our laws, to give much thought to jurisprudence. They are too busy in ascertaining what the laws are, to afford time to the consideration of what they should be. They do well if they can keep the chart by which they sail corrected to the present state of the ever-changing legal sands. Our politicians are too much engaged with party warfare during the session, and too busy in sporting, or travelling, or talking to their constituents, during the recess, to give any time to such matters. The consequence is, that the great scientific jurist may be sought for in vain amongst those who make and those who administer our laws. Perhaps we should not expect more from these men of business than that they should adopt with discrimination and carry into effect the suggestions of men who have more time and capacity for the consideration of the science of the law than themselves. A philosopher like Bentham *thinks* upon the law of evidence; his views work in the minds of the more practical men; after many days certain legislators procure the adoption of his ideas as law; and to the world at large the M.P. is the law-reformer, and the thinker is hardly known by name. Such, we believe, is the history of most of the *improvements* of our law. But there are alterations frequently made of a different character; and these usually originate in the mind of the legislator, and at the same time abundantly attest the absence of all knowledge of jurisprudence, and also the evils which this ignorance produces.

The present volume is an introduction to the study of the history of this important subject; and although the author modestly assures us that his work is in great part a compilation, it is impossible to read it without recognizing the great ability of the writer and the vast amount of care and research which he has bestowed upon it. The object of this book, as stated by the writer, is, "to give an historical review of the great authors who have scientifically cultivated law, combined with a sketch of its internal development." In pursuing this object, the author has not allowed himself to be checked by any limits either of time or space. He begins with the philosophy of ancient Greece in the fifth century before the birth of Christ, and he pursues his subject to the present time. The opinions of the philosophers of Greece, and those of Italy, France, Spain and Germany, as well as of those of England, are all comprised in this extensive work. In each case a short biographical sketch of the author whose opinions are under consideration, and in some cases a few observations as to the age and state of society in which he lived, are given in the first place; and then follows an outline of his opinion as set forth in his more important works. It is obviously a task of no small difficulty to give in a small space an accurate idea of the views set forth in writings of this nature, but in our opinion that task is in general performed with singular success.

The nature of the book renders it impossible

to support our opinion of it by laying extracts before the reader; but we advise those who desire to judge for themselves to peruse the chapters which relate to Macchiavelli and to the Philosopher of Malmesbury respectively, as embracing subjects of no small difficulty, and affording fair examples of the author's work. We have no doubt that a careful perusal of this book will afford a general notion of the workings of the human mind upon this subject, which could not otherwise be obtained without a sacrifice of time and labour which few can afford. Yet such a general knowledge is most important, and should always be required from those who are subjected to legal examination. The spirit of Blackstoneism—that whatever is in law is right—has had too much influence amongst us, and has wonderfully retarded our law reforms. The error of others who lean to the opposite conclusion—that whatever is in law is wrong—is not one which presents any peril to the legal mind of England as at present constituted.

#### OUR LIBRARY TABLE.

*Odd People: Being a Popular Description of Singular Races of Man.* By Capt. Mayne Reid. With Illustrations. (Routledge & Co.)—In this new volume for youthful readers, Capt. Reid has exhibited his customary tact in selecting the most attractive subjects, and treating them in the lightest possible manner. He is careful, with all his didactics, never to be dull, and contrives to set the stamp of wonder upon most of the "odd people" whose habits and manners are delineated. Prominently "odd" are the Bushmen of South Africa. Next to these are the Indians who dwell among the mysterious forests, creeks and lagoons, on both sides of the Amazon. There are also, particularly "odd," the Mundruds, or Beheaders, a special tribe of Amazonians; the Feejees who eat "long pigs" otherwise men; the Ottomacs, who feed, during certain seasons of the year, on clay; the Yamparicos, or root-diggers, with the picturesque Guaronas, or Palm-dwellers, far up the Orinoco, in the land of floods, the dwarfs of Fuego and the giants of Patagonia. Out of all these, and others, as may readily be imagined, Capt. Reid has extracted materials for a book which may fascinate school-boys, and not be despised by less precocious inquirers into the progress of human society and civilization.

*Sunshine and Clouds in the Morning of Life: a Tale.* By Anna Bowman. (Routledge & Co.)—The beginning and middle of this story may be guessed from the end. It is written to prove that good temper, good sense and sound religious principles can smooth all the petty difficulties and certain trials of life, and create that harmony which is the only happiness of the world. There are merry and brilliant weddings. Lucy, at length, dresses with propriety; Emma moderates her propensity to boisterous laughter; the baronet is softened; the maiden aunts forget their asperity. But it is not to be imagined, because the climax is thus every-day in its colour, that the narrative itself is unexciting. On the contrary, there is an abundance of adventure, at home and abroad, with scenes in Crimean camps and Russian palaces; and the family marriage-tables are not spread before every one who sits down to them is a hero or a heroine in one way or another. The tale is prettily told.

*Agnes Lowther; or, Life's Struggles and Victory.* By Josceline Grey. (Tresidder.)—Agnes Lowther is one of those useful little works, that profess cunningly to combine amusement with religious instruction,—an evident continuation of the old nursery system and principle, upon which children are induced to swallow a nauseous powder disguised in a spoonful of currant-jelly. Young ladies who are not allowed to read the novels of Sir Walter Scott or Miss Austen, may yet be permitted to extract as much romance as they please from the pages of any trashy story which appears to be proportionately besprinkled with texts and moral reflections. To such luckless maidens, 'Agnes Lowther' will, indeed, prove a

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treasure, since it is really well written, and contains sound religious principles, mingled with a hountiful share of love-making and heart-breaking. The perusal of this book may be safely recommended to the youthful patronesses of this species of literature.

*The Imperial Atlas of Modern Geography* (Blackie.)—The maps composing this Atlas are said to embrace "the most recent discoveries and the latest political divisions of territory in all parts of the world"; and yet they take no cognizance of the changes of territory in Italy during the past year, much less those of the present year. It is, indeed, no easy matter for geographers and publishers of maps to keep pace with the rapid course of events in the present eventful crisis. Revolution and annexation are so much the order of the day, that this would seem hardly the time for publishing geographies and atlases; lest they should very shortly be rendered obsolete in some degree. Subject to this deduction, the 'Imperial Atlas' is a highly satisfactory publication, sufficiently extensive for all ordinary purposes, without being inconveniently large or expensive; based upon trustworthy data supplied by Government Surveys and other official documents, together with the accounts of navigators and travellers, and the whole executed under careful superintendence by thoroughly competent hands. Altogether there are a hundred maps: most of them measuring twenty-two inches by fifteen inches, and drawn by Messrs. E. Weller, J. W. Lowry, W. Hughes, J. Bartholomew, and J. and C. Walker, geographers to the East India Company, whose names are sufficient, in themselves, to give all needful confidence. They are everything that could be wished, so far as accuracy, distinctness, neatness, and fullness of detail are concerned. In some few instances, it appears to us that the fault—so justly condemned by Col. Jackson, as quoted by the editor—of attempting to give too much, and thus producing over-crowdedness, has been committed; but, generally speaking, both the scale of the map, and the number of particulars indicated in it, are wisely adjusted to the nature of the country and the wants of the public. We think the plan here adopted, of colouring only the boundaries with strongly contrasted colours, decidedly preferable to that of colouring the whole map, according to the usual practice. There are useful occasional remarks upon the maps interspersed throughout, and a very copious Index for reference at the end.

*Critical Annotations, Additional and Supplementary, on the New Testament: being a Supplemental Volume to the Ninth Edition of the 'Greek Testament, with English Notes.'* By the Rev. S. T. Bloomfield, D.D. (Longman & Co.)—Biblical scholarship has made great advances of late in this country. What with editions of the Greek Testament, in whole or in part, Biblical Cyclopedias and Dictionaries, and other works illustrative of Scripture, theological students are in a much better position for getting at a pure text and a correct interpretation of it than they were only a few years ago. And it is well that it should be so; for we cannot doubt that much yet remains to be accomplished by the aid of active research and improved scholarship; nor can we reasonably hope for any great advantage from a revision of the Authorized Version, until a considerable advance beyond our present position has been brought about. Among those who have contributed to our store of Biblical knowledge, Dr. Bloomfield holds a prominent place. His Greek Testament, however faulty it may now appear to those who have access to more recent works, was, at the time of its first publication, very serviceable, and is still not without its value. Having been unable to find room in it for all the critical remarks which he thought desirable, he has spent nearly five years in supplementing it by what he terms his '*Opus in Nov. Test. supremum ac ultimum.*' It is strange he cannot break himself of this affectation of learning, which is far more calculated to awaken suspicion than inspire confidence. If his judgment and accuracy were at all on a par with his industry, he might have maintained a much higher position, notwithstanding the advent of fresh labourers into the field. His want of familiarity with German Biblical works is a

serious drawback; but the absurd blunders into which he is betrayed by pretending to an acquaintance with them are fatal to his authority. The excessively frequent use of italics in this volume, is a minor fault which defeats its own purpose by completely destroying all emphasis, and serves only to annoy the reader and show the writer's want of taste.

*The Wife's Domain.* By Philothalos. (Churchill.)—This is really a very sensible little book, and the author needed not to have been ashamed of his offspring. What he says is very true, that young women enter on the duties of married life without any kind of knowledge or preparation; and the consequences are most disastrous to themselves, their children and society. This is equally the case with the rich and the poor. Although Philothalos has written for the latter, his book may be usefully read by the first. We think if his book had been shorter, and less medical, it would have been better. It would also have been cheaper, which is a desideratum with books intended for the poor.

Among pamphlets which defy all efforts at classification, we notice *The Tweeddale Prize Essay on the Rainfall*, by T. F. Jamieson (Blackwood).—*The Water-Springs at Grays: their Capability of affording a Supply of Pure Water to the Metropolis.*—*The Invention of Stereoscopic Glasses for Single Pictures, with Preliminary Observations on the Stereoscope and on the Physiology of Stereoscopic Vision*, by T. W. Jones (Churchill).—*The Question, Are there any Commensurable Relations between a Circle and other Geometrical Figures? answered by a Member of the British Association* (Griffin).—*Steam Raft, suggested as a Means of Security to Human Life upon the Ocean*, by G. Catlin, (Falkner).—*The Proper System of Railroads for Ceylon*, by W. Morris (Spottiswoode).—*Sneddon: a Journey due North Wales for Summer Excursionists, by a Pedestrian Tourist* (Kent).—*The Great Royal Scottish Volunteer Review in Holyrood Park*, by E. R. Vernon (Nimmo).—*Slips of the Pen*, by R. J. B. (Savielle).—*Speech of Mr. Train On American Independence* (Griffin).—*English Orthography Rationally Considered; or, Dr. Webster's System commended to Candid Criticism and practical Common Sense* (Merriman).—*Our Age, 1860: a Satire, addressed to W.H.*, by J. Howell (Hamilton).—*and Medical Missionaries; or, Medical Agency Co-operative with Christian Missions to the Heathen*, by R. Marley (Blackwood).—*Notes on the Solar Eclipse*, by G. J. Symons (Stanford).—*Facts and Fallacies of the Turkish Bath Question*, by Dr. Houghton (Simpkin).—*Scientific Farming made Easy*, by T. C. Fletcher (Routledge).—*Sixth Report of the Association for Promoting Improvement in the Dwellings of Agricultural Labourers in Scotland* (Blackwood).—*and Mr. Gastineau On the Channel Islands.*

**FRENCH BOOKS OF TRAVEL.**—*From Quebec to Lima: Journal of a Voyage in the Two Americas, in 1858 and in 1859*—[*De Québec, &c.*]. By the Vicomte de Basterot. (Hachette & Co.)—One hundred and fifty pages of the run described in these three hundred and fifty pages will satisfy any English reader as to the "nature and properties" of the Vicomte de Basterot as a traveller. He is civil, obliging, fair, if not keenly observant;—rather sentimental, venting such little sighs and memories on great occasions, or anniversaries, or in spots of interest, as may be bought by the column in any 'Dictionary of Proper and Poetical Feeling.' He shows every desire to appreciate America;—none to depreciate England at the expense of the United States: but, because of that absence of humour in well-conditioned French travellers which we have been disposed to fancy a national characteristic, his record will not be found attractive to English readers, who have a hundred times been conducted over the same ground by countrymen less disposed to make mountains out of molehills than the courteous and neatly-behaved Viscount.—*In America and in Europe*—[*En Amérique, &c.*], by Xavier Marmier (same Publishers), is probably a collection of travelling sketches, or essays, contributed to reviews in years gone by. The subjects are, The French in America (Canada, Louisiana, Girard, The Havan-

nas), The Shetland Islands, Letters from the High Latitudes, Holland, A French Village, Tyrol Recollections, The Black Forest, Kasan, Russian Serfdom, The Tschoukiss. The list of subjects proves M. Marmier to have been versatile and unwearied in locomotion; but his manner has not changed from his manner in former years, when his contributions to French periodicals made his name known to us. There is little to bring any unfamiliar scene home to us. If our allies are willing to sit and hear, our countrymen (if constrained to sit) must see as well as hear—enjoy impressions in preference to listening to words.—A third book (same publishers) of French travel is *Recollections of an Embassy to China and to Japan in 1857 and 1858*—[*Souvenirs, &c.*], by the Marquis de Mages, —a dry account of an interesting adventure; none other, as its date has warned the reader, than the late expedition for settling matters betwixt Barbarians and Celestials in which England and France joined. Ambassadors can have no great penetrating insight beyond the Chinese wall of ambassadorial ceremonies. What is seen by them must be, as a rule, dressed up, "trotted out," put into a diplomatic light, somehow. In this book will be found little or nothing that is new to us; and the style of it is commonplace, if not tedious.

#### LIST OF NEW BOOKS.

Alexander the Great, by Williams, 3rd edit. 8vo. 3s. 6d. cl.  
 Guy's National Primer, or First Reader, 8vo. 3s. 6d. cl.  
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#### ON THE CHANGE OF CLIMATE IN THE DIFFERENT REGIONS OF THE EARTH.

Southampton, Sept. 26.

I am glad that the powerful mind of the Astronomer Royal has been brought to bear upon this subject. I have said that the elevation of mountain masses has produced an "evagation of the poles," which, as a consequence, has produced a change in the form of the earth, and corrugated and split up the strata composing its crust; and, further, that the extent of the evagation may have been such that at one time the North Pole may have been in such a position that the axis of the earth was perpendicular to the plane of her orbit (which it would be if the pole was nearly in the same position as the Magnetic Pole), and that at successive epochs it has occupied other positions till it reached its present position, and caused the change of climate which distinguishes each epoch. Mr. Airy admits the accuracy of the principle, but doubts the adequacy of the cause, in magnitude, to explain the supposed effects.

Putting the case in the most favourable form for producing the largest effect, and assuming that a mountain mass was equal to the 100th part of the mass of the equatorial protuberance, the result would be the shift of the poles of the earth to the

extent of one or two miles; and in the case I have supposed, viz., that the earth is not a rigid body, the first day's whirl would make the new position of the axis again a permanent position—permanent, at least, until again disturbed by the upheaval of another mountain mass, capable of producing another change. I hope I have correctly represented what Mr. Airy admits, and that we have now got the problem into a form which will enable us very readily to discuss it.

And first, as to the magnitude of mountain masses as they now exist, I grant that there is no existing mass that can produce more than a scarcely appreciable change. But the present mountain masses represent but fragments of their former bulks. The great range of the Andes, with the whole continent of South America, is probably the most recently elevated mountain range upon the face of the earth; the whole has been raised to its present great height of about five miles within the most recent geological period, and the greater part of it has been raised several feet within our own time. And I know of no reason why it should not continue to rise until it reached a magnitude which would produce a sensible change in the position of the axis of the earth. But although it simplifies the conception of the problem to suppose the elevation of one mountain mass, we need not depend upon the elevation of one only for producing the effect; for if, with Sir C. Lyell, we suppose other configurations of the continents and seas, and that another great continent with its mountain ranges, like the Himalayas, rose simultaneously with South America at the other side of the globe, whilst other lands in opposite directions are sinking, it is obvious that under this supposition the effect might be quadrupled.

But, it may be asked, Can this elevation of mountain masses be supposed to continue to proceed to an indefinite extent? Certainly not; their attaining a certain magnitude would lead to results which would rapidly produce the reduction of their bulk, if it did not sweep them away altogether.

The great geological epochs of which we have been treating are separated by intervals of what may be called the periods of tranquil deposition of nearly horizontal strata, and those periods of disturbance, during which the strata have been thrown into great systems of undulations, and whole races of animals and plants utterly and simultaneously annihilated over the whole world, and the climate changed for the succeeding period of tranquillity.

These tranquil periods have been of such long duration that no geologist ventures to say what number of years they occupied: a period of millions of years ago is but as yesterday in geological chronology, and the vast periods of time required for mountains to attain a magnitude sufficient to disturb this state of tranquillity, is necessary to, and consistent with, the hypothesis.

We must not investigate this problem, therefore, under the supposition that vast mountain masses have suddenly made their appearance in any given positions. Their increase, as measured by the chronology of man, is so slow that we could not possibly expect that astronomical observation could detect the effect of the increase in their magnitude in disturbing the position of the axis of the earth. The effect of this slow increase may, by a rough analogy, be compared with that which takes place when the base of a great iceberg is slowly dissolved, until eventually the whole mass gives a roll, and settles into a new position of equilibrium.

Let us next suppose that a mountain mass may possibly have attained to the required magnitude to produce the change, and that at the critical period, or turning-point in its history, the earth gives such a whirl as the Astronomer Royal speaks of. We must first endeavour to imagine what would be the effect upon the strata composing the crust of the earth consequent upon the movement of the protuberant equatorial mass; the strata would be thrown into undulations in quasi-loxodromic lines, such as have been described by Humboldt and others.

And what we must next inquire would be the effect upon the great volume of water in the seas in which the strata were being deposited. The

water would be thrown with irresistible violence upon the continents, whole races of animals and plants would be simultaneously destroyed, and the surface of the earth ground down by the water itself, and the forcing along of vast masses of detrital matter over it; and finally there would be such a change, be it small or great, in the position of the poles of the earth, and in the inclination of its axis, as would produce a change of climate in every part of the world, but more marked in the Arctic and Temperate regions than the Tropical. We have but to suppose this repeated again and again to account for all the observed phenomena.

In weighing the probability of the truth of this theory, we must take into consideration the fact, that no other theory has been before advanced which would account for these so intimately correlated phenomena being produced by one and the same cause; and I still hope that some at least of my scientific friends will admit that I have given them in it a valuable "wrinkle."

HENRY JAMES, Col. R.E.

Glasgow, Sept. 24.

I have now fully satisfied myself as to the origin of the error into which Sir Henry James seems to have fallen. It is a mistake about the meaning of a word. When I saw his quotation from the 'Principia,' I could not recollect that Newton had ever propounded any views upon the question under discussion. I felt assured, moreover, that, in so far as Newton could have examined the problem, his conclusions would be right.

The word "globe" has two distinct meanings attached to it,—one geographical, whereby it signifies the spheroidal planet in which we exist; the other is mathematical, signifying the solid described by the revolution of a circle about its diameter. Our discussion refers to the first; Newton referred to the second. On opening the 'Principia,' third edition, at the passage referred to by Sir Henry James, and reading the entire corollary, you will find that Newton most distinctly defines the globe to which he refers, so as to admit of no doubt as to its nature. He says: "*Pone globum uniformem et perfecte circinatum in spatii liberis*," &c. It is of a perfectly circular globe, and not a spheroid, that he treats. The second sentence but one before that quoted (in translation) by Sir Henry James is as follows:—"Si globus plano quocunque per centrum suum et centrum in quod vis dirigitur transeunte, dividi intelligatur in duo hemispheria; urgebit semper vis illa utrumque hemispherium aequaliter et propterea globum, quoad motum rotationis, nullum in partem inclinabit." However the division takes place, the hemisphere must have the same mechanical effect. A perfectly circular globe would undoubtedly be subjected to evagation of the poles, from the projection of any small irregularities over its surface; but this could not occur in the case of a spheroid, unless the irregularities were of the same order as the outswelling of the equatorial regions of the spheroid. Newton's object in this corollary was manifestly to pave the way for his more complicated investigation in the Third Book, where he treats of the rotation of the earth in connexion with precession, and where the earth is treated not as a circular globe, but as a spheroid.

HENRY HENNESSY.

P.S. For "M. Planta," in my last, read *M. Plana*. The conclusion to which I refer, as being confirmed by the great Sardinian mathematician, is, the increasing oblateness of the interior strata of the earth, as a result of the passage of the interior fused matter to the solid state during the process of secular refrigeration.

#### NATIONAL ASSOCIATION FOR THE PROMOTION OF SOCIAL SCIENCE.

WITH the veteran Brougham for President, and Glasgow for the place of meeting, it would be strange for the gathering of any Association not to be a success. The men of Glasgow are not given to fail, and having invited the Social Science philosophers, they determined to give them a hearty and enthusiastic welcome. Nearly 3,000 persons have taken tickets for this Meeting. The Saturday train from London brought the President; and on

Sunday the strangers were quite sufficient to be noted for their presence in the Cathedral and kirks of the various popular preachers. Several of the clergy preached sermons bearing on the approaching meeting. Monday brought more strangers, and the Council meeting in the middle of the day, in which the routine business of the Association was discussed, and invitations received to meet next year at Nottingham and Newcastle-on-Tyne. In the evening, the City Hall was crowded to hear the venerable President—venerable for his grey hairs and long services in the cause of Social Science. His reception was quite an ovation: the whole audience rose as he entered, and he took his seat amid the waving of hats and handkerchiefs. In a feeble and somewhat tremulous voice, which, however, maintained its power marvellously to the end, he delivered an oration which lasted two hours. It was Broughamite: no offenders were spared, from the House of Commons and the House of Lords to the Emperor of the French and the King of Naples; and all good efforts for the advance of knowledge and the bettering the condition of the poor were duly praised.

LORD BROUGHAM, the President, opened the business on Monday with an oration, of which we give the substance:—

In the outset of our proceedings we are led to mark the progress of social science in past times, as well as its state at this day. We shall best ascertain the progress of our science by casting an eye over the history of the parties which have divided both the rulers and the people, and observing what attention was given to it, and how far it entered into their controversies. In the early part of the last century, after the restoration of peace with France, and the suppression of the first rebellion in Scotland, the contests of party turned chiefly upon personal grounds, whereof the chief was the proportions in which the power and the emoluments of office should be shared by the great families, and the individuals chiefly but not exclusively connected with them, or who had acquired distinction in Parliament. Ministries were formed, or even broken up, not upon any questions of policy, foreign or domestic, but upon the claims of some persons to office—nay, occasionally upon the claim of some individual to one particular office—and the continuance for many years, it might be, of a single individual at the head of affairs, and his removal, formed the sole objects of the two great parties in the State, both of their chiefs in Parliament and their adherents in the country. If measures were considered, they were viewed only in their bearing upon the personal question, but the conduct of persons occupied all men's minds far more than the merits of their policy, or its results upon the welfare of the community. It has often been observed that Sir R. Walpole had uncontrolled power for twenty years, and that yet no great measure—no change in our institutions, either for good or evil—can be ascribed to him during that very long reign. His great merits as a ruler have, by all well-informed and considerate persons, been fully acknowledged. He saved the Revolution settlement, when assailed by the most formidable adversaries, with a majority of the clergy and landed interest; he kept England out of the German quarrels of two successive sovereigns; and he preserved the peace with her most powerful neighbour. But the only measures of which he was the author were his Excise scheme, in which he was defeated by the devices of a faction acting on the multitude; and his Spanish war, into which the same faction and the same mob forced him. That men of rare endowments flourished in these times—indeed of the highest qualities ever displayed in public life—is undeniable; and that their talents fitted them for government in an extraordinary degree is as certain as that by their eloquence they were masters of debate. Besides Walpole, there was Pulteney, of first-rate distinction as an orator, and Bolingbroke, according to all tradition, the very first of modern times. But their lives were in council devoted to the intrigues of party, in the senate to party eloquence, in office to preserving all things as they had found them; and when Lord Chatham, somewhat later, was at the head of affairs, either in opposition or in the ministry, not

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only where his whole attacks upon his adversaries confined purely to party grounds, but his own policy showed him so little in advance of his age that, as regarded France, it was grounded upon the narrow antiquated notion of natural enmity; and as regarded America, upon the equally narrow and antiquated notion of natural sovereignty. To work out those great principles—to attack all invasion of the one either in alliance or in war, and of the other in government—was the object of his life. Yet so powerful in habit, such the force of routine, he seemed wholly unable to comprehend that it is our first duty by all means to cultivate peace with our nearest neighbours as the first of blessings to both nations, each being able to do the other the most good in amity, the most harm in hostility; but he could only see glory, or even safety, in the precarious superiority grasped by a successful man. In like manner, as often as the idea of American independence crossed his mind, he instantly and utterly rejected it as the destruction of our national existence, instead of wisely perceiving that to become the fast friends of the colonies which we had first planted and long cherished under our protection would benefit both ourselves and them the more by suffering them in their full growth to be as independent as we had always been. Was Lord Chatham singular in these feelings? Not at all; but he was not at all wiser than others. The American war had raged for years before the word of separation crossed the lips of any man in either house of Parliament, the mismanagement of the war and ill-treatment of the colonists being the only topics of attack upon the Government from those whose avowed object was to prevent the necessity of separation. But out of this war and this revolution arose fundamental differences of opinion upon the great questions of allegiance, of popular rights, and generally of civil liberty—opinions carried still further by the great Revolution (not unconnected with that event) which convulsed Europe a few years later; and parties became marshalled according to principles thus entertained by many, professed by more; and the end of the century was distinguished as had been the greater part of the century before, not by the absence of all party and personal combination, but by important principles in matters of Church and State becoming the ground of attachment or opposition to persons, or of ties that hold parties together. The question between the Commonwealth and the exiled family, and afterwards between the two branches of the family, was not—like the disputes between the two Roses, the houses of Lancaster and York—a merely personal controversy, having no real foundation in principles and unconnected with conflicting opinions; but there were real and important diversities of sentiment involved in the controversy, although the game of party was played with its usual abuses, and in its unavoidable excess. The interests of individuals being involved in the maintenance of certain principles; these are, in many cases, assumed, and in some cases, though at first honestly entertained, yet continue to be professed after they have ceased to influence the mind. Opinions are used to marshal politicians in bands and separate them from others. Place is the real object; principle the pretext we put in. Opinions become the counters with which the game of faction is played. It cannot be denied that the combination of men to act in concert for the furthering of their honestly entertained opinions may produce salutary effects in resisting oppression or in recommending a useful policy, and has often this operation. But, how often the contrary result has attended the abuse of party union appears manifest upon examining the history of most of the great controversies which have divided men at various periods. The party which, in opposition, was for retrenchment and peace, transplanted into office cared little for either. Bills of indemnity, suspensions of the constitution, propounded by their adversaries, were passed by themselves when to those adversaries they had succeeded. The very party which, when in power, made acts of attainder and acts of indemnity its favourite measures, deprived of power was the enemy of both; so that it seemed as if each faction had the privilege of dictating to its adversaries their line of policy by simply adopting one

for itself. This mode of dealing with principles and opinions is most pernicious to the morals—not of leading politicians only—but of the whole community. A sacred regard for truth, the foundation of all morals, is sapped and undermined; falsehood is propagated unblushingly, and the most malignant feelings are habitually gratified, it being constantly found that men will both deceive and slander for their party's interest, who are incapable of such faults for their own; and yet they are sinning for their own behoof when they so further the interests of their party. Nor let it be for a moment imagined that of late years, when such high pretensions have been put forward of being governed by great principles—pretensions unknown a century ago—there have not also been petty controversies resorted to, petty intrigues and tricks to promote a friend as ruler, or to get rid of an adversary in that station—intrigues as paltry and as vile as any that can be found in the days of the Walpoles, the Pelhams, and the Pulteneys. The late disclosures in the correspondence of Mr. Pitt's friends throw a lurid light upon some of his favoured adherents and slaves—how far men will be carried by the combination of unbounded zeal for a patron, with intense hatred of his adversary, and an intense love of themselves. While the holding certain opinions, and acting upon certain principles, more or less mixed with personal or party feelings, gives these opinions and principles a weight in the public estimation greater than their intrinsic importance would have possessed, they were all, without any exception, of such a description that they lent themselves to the policy of conflicting parties. But, in the course of time, and the improvement of men's views touching their real interests, their attention was turned to opinions and principles—among the most important of all thereon which the leaders of particular classes could not fasten so as to appropriate them, because they so plainly concerned the whole community, or were of such unquestionable soundness and truth, that no dispute could arise respecting them, any diversity of views being necessarily confined to points of detail, and consequently they were placed beyond the field of party conflict. The duty and expediency of philanthropic policy in one sense comprises all the subjects belonging to this class; but even in a more restricted acceptation it embraces some of the most remarkable features. One characteristic of these opinions has just been noticed, their not lending themselves to party controversy. Another, and equally striking, is their not being held by those who are specially interested in them. Their professors might be benefited with the rest of the community, but in every other respect were entirely disinterested. Indeed, some principles were unconnected with any benefit, even to the community at large, and might involve a sacrifice of its interest to the higher feelings of duty. The subject belonging to this class, the earliest in date, is also the one that most truly falls within this description of having originated in just and pure principles, in those of justice and humanity—the extinction of slavery and abolition of the traffic in slaves. For the first time statesmen and orators were seen directing their exertions to a subject which no party in the State could turn to its account, upon which all men were agreed as to the merits of the question, and could only differ regarding the time and manner of its solution. The subject was first urged upon the attention of the legislature by men who belonged not to its body, and whose opinions differed with those of the Government; and it was welcomed by Members of Parliament formerly attached to the Ministry—nor even during the half century over which the history of the question extends was it mixed in any manner or way with the conflicts of party, while they raged more fiercely than in any former period, and the men engaged in them were on all other questions the most lavishly praised and the most unsparingly assailed. This felicity in the great question has not attended it in the New World. Slavery is not merely a ground of party division, but it is the great and paramount way, almost the only ground both of conflict in every State of the Union and of the differences between the States themselves. The grand question of the election of President (now approaching) depends entirely upon the prin-

ciples expressed by the candidates respecting slavery; and this question involves all other disputes, inasmuch as, to the unspeakable misfortune of that great community, the appointment of all public functionaries, from the highest to the humblest, depends upon the election of the chief magistrate; and all may be removed on their party being defeated at that election. As regards the subject itself, the issue of the contest is most important; for the question is, whether slavery shall be perpetuated and extended, by adopting the principle that the institution is national and universal, or regarding it as local only, and authorized by the law of the particular districts. The revival of the African slave trade is by no means an impossible result from a victory of the Southern States, where it has been not very faintly announced; and the struggle which they so vehemently maintain with the North may even bring about the disruption of the Union—one of the greatest calamities that could happen to America and to the world: to America, as ending, if it did not begin, in civil war; to the world, as shaking the credit of all popular government. Another calamity is far from unlikely to be caused by the conflict—the liberation of the slaves by insurrection: a consummation to be earnestly deprecated, as much for themselves as for their masters. When Dr. Johnson astonished the friends of Church and King at Oxford, by proposing as a toast "The speedy revolt of the slaves in Jamaica, and success to them," he had not lived to see the dreadful consequences to the unhappy victims of their sordid oppression, in the misery far worse even than that oppression, brought upon them by the insurrection, which shook it off in the French islands. He might feel little compassion for the masters—the supporters of what they term "the institution"—and might ask them to show how the King of Dahomey should not plead the immemorial custom of his country requiring the slaughter of hundreds, that he might float his canoe in human blood, as the appointed tribute of filial affection at his father's funeral. But these masters are not the only parties to be considered when there is a question of slave insurrection; and we must contemplate with horror the fate of the negroes, from the worst of ill, civil war in its worst form—civil war in the Slave States, and must regard as bereft of all claim to be ranked among men whoever could, from party zeal or perverse views of personal advantage, lend themselves to measures by bare possibility leading to such hideous scenes.—

An outlaw without kin or home is he—  
Unfit for public role or private care.  
The wretch who can delight in civil war,  
Whose lust is murder, and whose horrid joy  
To tear his country and his kind destroy.  
(*Iliad*, ix. 63.)

But let us devoutly hope that no such fate impends over our kinsmen in the New World—that their great scheme of social polity will remain a blessing to all classes, master and slave. But the improvement of other classes, more numerous though less oppressed, and breaking the chains forged for them by ignorance, is a work of equal importance, though of less renown, and as they who devote themselves to it are not influenced by party views, their principles have generally been little affected by that disturbing force. The promoters of education in all its branches, and especially the extending it to the humbler classes, by such means as may secure good instruction at an easy cost, and without breaking in upon their independence, has been a favourite pursuit of those who most regard the interests of society. On some details there have arisen party differences, but no class of persons either in Church or State can be found at this day to deny the importance of generally-diffused knowledge, or to promulgate opinions in favour of ignorance. The subject, however, gives rise to the most interesting inquiries upon the mode and manner of attaining what all have alike in view, and we need but to cast our eye over the names of those who both now and in former years have presided over this department in our Association, to be satisfied how little it can be regarded as a party question in any of its various branches. One matter has never been sufficiently considered at any of our meetings—to what extent, if to any, the

education of children should be compulsory. That ignorance is the cause of crimes, directly and indirectly, is not denied. Those crimes are punished by the magistrate. Then, does he perform his duty if he does nothing to remove the cause, and trusts to the indirect operation of penal enactments? In some countries, Protestant as well as Roman Catholic, he compels parents to make their children attend school. No doubt these are chiefly States under the discipline of a government more absolute than ours. But in some having a free form of government, regulations amounting, if not to compulsion, yet substantially leaving the parent no choice, are found to prove successful in enforcing education without encroaching upon liberty. It is much to be desired that this question should engage the best attention of the Education Department of the Congress, and that all information should be brought together which the attendance of foreign Members may enable us to obtain. Another subject deserving of immediate and full consideration is the great defect existing all over the country in providing and superintending of teachers for the middle classes and the due encouragement and proper control of those teachers. The upper and middle classes enjoy this benefit—the former from the great schools and Universities, the latter from the Privy Council grants, the requirement of qualification in teachers, and the superintendence of inspection; but no attention whatever is given to the middle-class teachers, though under those the most important part of the community receives instruction. Petitions complaining of this neglect were presented to Parliament last year signed by 40,000 persons, of which I presented 120 to the Lords. The answer given by the Government was that the Privy Council had not the means of extending the system to the middle-class teachers; yet upon the best calculation that could be made of these classes, being little more than half-a-million, and having 120,000 children of school-going age, only 1,200 schools would be added to those under the Council Department. The whole subject of the teachers' position and qualifications deserves to be thoroughly examined, and especially with the view of raising in public estimation that most important class. But though education and training, imparting sound knowledge, religious and moral, and exalting the character, as of rational beings, is the most important of all our duties towards the humbler class of our fellow-citizens, it is by no means to supersede the care of their temporal welfare, or to be taken as a substitute of the other imperative duty. Nothing can be more gratifying in this, and in every other view, than the success of the great measure which the working classes themselves have lately adopted to provide for their comfort, to husband their resources, and to protect them from imposition, by the formation of co-operative societies, and happily these have greatly multiplied, especially in the manufacturing districts of Lancashire and Yorkshire. Such societies are of two kinds. The one has for its immediate object to expend the income of each member to the best advantage for himself; the other to enable him to obtain the largest return for his capital and industry. Sixteen years ago, forty Rochdale artisans, desirous to establish a society of the first kind, amassed by a weekly subscription of 3d. from each member the sum of 28*l.*, hired a room for a store, laid in a stock of necessities, and began to trade, selling not only to members but to all who would buy. The enterprise provoked laughter. A neighbouring shopkeeper boasted that he could carry away the whole stock in a wheelbarrow. Now, however, that single room is multiplied into many distinct shops, spread over the town, and the weekly vend of the society exceeds 2,700*l.* Every member must be the owner of five shares of 20*s.* each, the permitted maximum being a hundred such shares. The capital is paid in by small weekly or quarterly instalments. All the transactions of the society, whether purchases or sales, are for ready money, the entire absence of credit being the corner-stone of the institution. The customer, whether member or stranger, is charged at the same price as at the ordinary shops of the town; but at the end of each quarter a dividend of nett profits is made, and

he receives his quota according to the amount of his purchases. To arrive at nett profit, the following deductions are made from the gross returns; the cost price of the goods, the current expenses of the stores, including the wages of the manager and his assistants, rents, repairs, a proper allowance to a depreciation fund, and 5 per cent. for interest on capital. The residue is the nett profit, from which, however, before it is divided among the customers, 2*l.* per cent. is deducted for the maintenance of a library and news-room. The society is governed by a committee elected from the members, which meets weekly, when it gives patient attention to all complaints. If real cause of dissatisfaction exists it is removed; if the complainant is in error he is reasoned with; and so successful has been the course taken by the committee that, although the arbitrators have been appointed from the first, pursuant to the acts under which the association is registered, yet it has never been necessary, even in a single instance, to engage their services. The benefits derived by the individual in the expenditure of his income upon this plan are manifold. It is enough to enumerate a few. First, antagonism of interest between buyer and seller is annihilated. All motive, therefore, to adulteration, or in any way to lower quality, for the sake of diminishing price, is absent. No extra price is put on the goods to pay the rent of shops in expensive situations, nor for the plate-glass or other costly fittings, nor for the loss occasioned by the expensive articles in the windows to attract customers, nor for advertisements. Indeed, show is altogether discarded, and while no cost is spared to insure high quality in the articles themselves, no money is wasted on the means of attraction. The exact price of the article, too, is very material. If the price is high, the customers' returning profit is also high, and *vice versa*. But not only economy is consulted, the improvement of the character and habits is incalculably promoted. The workman is stimulated to the exercise of self-control beyond his reach in ordinary circumstances. He must refrain from anticipating his income by running into debt, in order that he may be able to pay ready money, and also to acquire capital; he is urged when he has these advantages clearly and forcibly set forth by his brother members, and more than all by the example of the body of which he forms one. Finding, then, strict economy a necessary consideration to his maintaining the rank to which he has aspired, he casts about that he may so exercise his thrift and abridge his expenditure, only in what is not essential to health and comfort, and soon discovers that his abstinence from drink and tobacco not only subtracts nothing from his well-being, but greatly adds to it. But a working man, out of debt, acquiring capital, however slowly, and abstaining from stimulants, is on the road to happiness, and with a prospect of attaining it as bright as is vouchsafed to any citizen of the State, even the highest in the land. The second class of these institutions, namely, those which have for their object to enable each member to augment his income, are at present but few in number, and their experience has been short. At Rochdale a society was founded four or five years ago for spinning cotton yarn, and weaving it into calico. The principal distinction as regards financial arrangements between the two classes is, that the nett profits are divided among the artisans, instead of the customers, each in proportion to his or her wages, the wages being fixed according to the rate of payment in the mills of the district. The disastrous years of 1857 and 1858 sorely tried this infant establishment, but it weathered the storm successfully; and although during a period of fifteen weeks no sales were effected, or sales only to a limited amount, yet the hands were never put upon short hours, although the other mills of the town yielded in this respect to the pressure of the times. It is, however, far too early to predict success for co-operative societies of this class with any degree of confidence, or to speak of them otherwise than as hopeful. It appears manifest, and the observation is important, that co-operation is not only distinct from communism or socialism, but repugnant to it, far more than to the ordinary course of trade, with which, indeed, it agrees in

giving to every man the benefit of his own industry, skill and economy. Co-operation leaves its votary to freedom; whereas communism, which makes him receive according to his wants instead of according to his merits, extinguishes the ordinary motives to exertion, and failing as it always has failed to induce men to work from higher motives must, if it continue in action, fall back upon coercion. Communism is in truth slavery in disguise; but as the slaves are also their own masters, they quickly emancipate themselves, and that being done the communities of socialists come to an end. Such is the appointed lot and fate of the kindred association arising from strikes, even when these are carried on without breach of law—that is, without in any manner exercising compulsion directly or indirectly to obtain the increase of members. This most interesting subject will certainly occupy both our General and Judicial Departments.

At our last Congress, great attention was given to the important subject of Temperance, and especially to the necessity of preparing public opinion for those repressive measures which experience daily proves more and more clearly to be required for lessening the consumption of spirituous liquors. The great source of pauperism and of crimes has hitherto only been attacked by palliatives; and, although these have had a certain success, yet, if there be any means not exposed to serious objections by which the evil may be extirpated, the gain to society would be incalculable. No measure of absolute repression can, of course, be recommended until the public mind has been not only prepared, but strongly inclined for it. But the proposal of the Grand Alliance well deserves a careful consideration—the plan of enabling a certain proportion of the inhabitants in every district—a proportion considerably above the commercial majority—to give the magistrates authority for placing the district under a general Repression Act, passed with such modifications as, according to the Act's provisions, may be allowed in the peculiar local circumstances. A very extensive adhesion has been given to the proposal in the great districts of Manchester and Birmingham; and this, besides its intrinsic merits, will be quite sufficient to cause a searching examination by our Departments—Sanitary and of Jurisprudence. That it deeply concerns both need not be added. But which, of all our departments, does it not most deeply concern? Remember the memorable expression of the great philanthropist, our eminent colleague, the Recorder of Birmingham: "Whatever step I take," says Mr. Hill, "and into whatever direction I may strike, the drink demon starts up before me, and blocks the way." This is an interest which, with us, has never, in any respect, been brought within the dominion of party, either civil or religious. Such, however, has not been its lot in the New World; and it affords the most remarkable illustration of the evils which afflict the United States from the practice of their constitution maintaining in every part of the country an incessant canvas, caused by the distribution of patronage and change of offices. Every subject of a nature to interest the community, and thus to create a difference of opinion, becomes the ground of controversy to contending parties; and so the Maine Liquor Law became a question upon which governors were chosen and removed. The evils which the suspension of the Law occasioned, in the great increase of pauperism and crimes, which had, under its beneficent operation, been reduced within an incredibly narrow compass, but which now rapidly revived, so seriously impressed men's minds with the mischief of having made it a party question, that a resolution was passed at the State Convention against ever so treating the subject hereafter: the repeal of the Suspension Law was effected; and all attempts against the Maine Law were afterwards defeated by reference to the Resolution of the Convention. Nothing can redound more to the honour of the American people than their thus firmly persevering in their just and righteous determination. But it is impossible to avoid feeling how great is our happiness in this country, to be free from the influence of such disturbing forces upon our most important measures. We discuss them freely on their own merits, and

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apply to the consideration of them those principles which are mere matters of science; but science reduced to practice should guide the inquiry and dictate the conclusion.

If from the Session of 1860 we have derived little benefit to our great cause of Social Science, we have, at least, received the lesser advantage of salutary warnings; and of these two are of considerable practical importance. In the first place, the necessity of a Minister of Justice has become manifest; what before was deemed highly expedient, is now plainly shown to be requisite. It can hardly be doubted that any one of the late failures, of which all men now complain, would have been prevented had we possessed the inestimable advantage of a department responsible for carrying the measures judiciously selected, and with care and skill prepared. No one can deny that, to take the most remarkable instance, the Bankruptcy Bill, dismembered of the provisions which were little more than enactments, but formed a huge, an appalling mass—relieved from the clauses most objected to, and entrusted to those who had no other work and were answerable for its passing through the Commons—would have reached the Lords in time to be considered and adopted—if, indeed, it had not, as most probably would have been the case, been first brought into the Lords at a period when they had little to do and the Commons were overwhelmed, or acted as if they felt overwhelmed, with work. The like would have happened with every one of the other bills, as well those which failed as those which passed in debate, or with an amount of discussion barely decent. But further illustration was given of such a department's importance in conducting the important duty of deciding in the exercise of the high and delicate prerogative of mercy. Does any one now affect to doubt that this should be vested in a lawyer? The whole subject of a Department of Justice has long been in the hands of our able, learned, and excellent colleague, the late Chancellor of Ireland, who, indeed, obtained the sanction of the Commons to a resolution which he moved; and we may truly affirm that no reflecting person now entertains any doubt upon the question except as to whether the undivided responsibility of a single Minister should not be preferred to the advantage derived from the concurrence of several, and from the greater weight thus possessed, as well as the fuller investigation of difficult questions. The other warning offered by the late session relates to the Consolidation of the Law. Bills carefully prepared by successive Committees of the Lords, with the aid of the ablest draughtsmen, and after the fullest discussions attended by experienced criminal lawyers, and after reports of Commissioners upon all the details—bills which embodied a consideration of the law upon the most important heads of crime,—were sent down to the Commons; and it was found impossible to proceed a single step in the consideration of them. But utterly hopeless as any such attempt must have proved in the past session, and with the weight under which it laboured, there was presented to the minds of all reflecting persons, in a stronger light than ever, the absolute necessity of performing this important work in one way, and the utter impossibility of ever accomplishing it in any other—namely, the Commons agreeing to repose confidence in those who had prepared the digest, especially the Lords, who had examined, considered and approved it; thus adopting the consolidation as prepared, and not discussing it in detail. The debate of some hundred clauses of a code in a House of some hundred Members, comprising lawyers in either kind—barrister and attorney—recorders of boroughs and corporations, Justices giving ear to the town clerks, chairmen of sessions and other magistrates, country gentlemen instructed by their solicitors, bankers and merchants with sons at the bar, dilettante law reformers—presents to the mind such a picture of endless proposal and rejection, cavil and comment, that the bare aspect is enough to induce slumbers in the least somnolent, or confuse and turn round the steadiest head. All men are now agreed that the only question is, shall there be a Consolidation or not, parcel of and preliminary to a complete Code or Digest of the Law? In other words, shall the Government of this country perform

its high and imperative duty of bringing the people under its rule acquainted with the laws made to protect their rights; but also the laws to which it requires their obedience, enforcing that obedience by the severest penalties. If the affirmative answer is given, there can be only one manner of working to frame the Code. Whoever desires to have it discussed in detail, that is, the clauses merely stating what the existing law is, without proposing any change—whoever insists upon discussing the dictation adopted in framing these clauses (for that is all)—has a shorter and simpler mode of declaring his opinion, or rather of declaring what he means; his real meaning is, that there shall be no Consolidation, no Digest, no Code. It is to be expected that the Department of Jurisprudence will examine these two great subjects,—a Department of Justice and the Consolidation of the Law,—with the care which their paramount importance so manifestly prescribes. At our first meeting, in 1857, the subject of Judicial Statistics was brought under consideration in the able and useful papers read by Mr. Leone Levi; and, in consequence of the discussion which took place, very considerable improvements were introduced into that department of the Treasury; so that, at our last Congress, hopes were entertained of such complete and regular information being afforded as the Annual Report of the Minister of Justice presents in France. A most important step has since been made in that direction. The Meeting of the International Statistical Congress has been held, under the Presidency of the Prince Consort, whose opening Address, marked by the sound sense, the accurate information, and the general ability which distinguish all His Royal Highness's exertions, is in the hands of all our Members. Having been requested to superintend the Judicial Department, and having afterwards, in His Royal Highness's absence, presided at the General Meeting, it was a great satisfaction to find the unanimous adoption of the plan which it became my duty to report, embodying the resolution in full detail upon the whole subject; and there was a strong recommendation unanimously passed, urging the Government to appoint a permanent Statistical Commission. The Report has been presented to the House of Lords (where, indeed, I had several years before brought forward the resolutions which formed its groundwork this year), and it is now among the Printed Papers of the session. There were naturally present at this International Congress eminent men from various parts of the Continent; and, in announcing the assembly of the present Meeting, I took the liberty of inviting those distinguished foreigners, with whose presence, I trust, we are now honoured. Among others was a negro gentleman, of great respectability and talents, Dr. Delaney, who had attended different departments, and, in his able address, had communicated useful information and suggestions. When inviting him to this Congress, I informed him that he would have the satisfaction of visiting the country which first declared a slave free the instant he touches British ground. Dr. Delaney's forefathers were African slaves; he is himself a native of Canada. It is truly painful to reflect that although his family have been free for generations, his origin being traced to one whom the crimes of white men and Christians had enslaved, he would be, in the land of Transatlantic liberty, incapable of enjoying any civil rights whatever, and would be treated altogether as an alien, the iniquity of the fathers being inexorably visited, not upon their children, but upon the children of their victims, to all generations—children whose only offence being the sufferings of their parents, whose wrongs they inherit with their hue. Connected with statistics is a subject which occupied our Sanitary Department last year, the defects in our public records of sickness and mortality, and the valuable papers of Mr. Kempsey gave rise to much discussion. The Council appointed a committee to investigate the question, and resolutions were agreed to, on which a communication was opened with the Government. There can be no doubt that the present system will receive extension and improvement. Unfortunately, as much cannot be said respecting the Report of another

committee named by the Council, on the defects of the Census of 1851, and their valuable suggestions for its improvement in 1861. These were kindly received by the Government, and attention to them was promised; but the Act, as passed, does not provide for any material improvement. On one matter there really can be no doubt; the returns for the three kingdoms ought on every account to be made uniform. It is to be hoped that the success of the National Congress may lead to a still more important international assemblage on the assimilation of commercial law.

Of the great frequency of fatal accidents lately to be deplored, those on railways really urgently demand attention, and their causes cannot be fully investigated without the suggestion of some preventive. It is remarkable that the evil is confined to Great Britain. In France, the greater discipline, and more careful administration, even more than the lesser speed and the want of excursion trains, is probably the reason that grave accidents there are all but unknown. The other class of injury to persons, often fatal, is that of careless or foolhardy and adventurous travellers being severely hurt, often losing their lives, in attempts to climb or descend dangerous passes, in neglect or in defiance of their guides' advice. The misery thus inflicted on families—the public injury thus occasioned—should be impressed upon men's minds, and the guilt incurred by their carelessness or obstinacy. A life thus thrown away is by self-slaughter, not self-murder; and the crime bears the same relation to suicide that manslaughter does to murder.

Unhappily, the number is small of European States in which a popular government affords the security of measures being proposed by the rulers calculated to benefit the people as well as themselves. But the diffusion of knowledge has made so manifest the tendency of an enlightened policy to promote the interests of the community, and thus, in the result to serve the Government also, that the attention of absolute sovereigns has been drawn, if not driven, to such courses as must increase the wealth of their subjects, and, consequently, their own resources, and might also promote the comforts of the people, for which they probably cared little, unless as tending to preserve order and quiet without the control of force. Such sovereigns, too, have facilities for making and moulding laws, and effecting changes in the institutions, as well as the policy of the State—facilities which made the French sect, the Economists, prefer what they termed a legal despotism to a popular form of government, and made even Bentham regard such a system with envy, when pressed by the difficulty of carrying forward his plans for the improvement of our jurisprudence. It is unnecessary to dwell on the grossness of the delusion arising from such one-sided views of the subject; but we may admit that some compensation is thus afforded by despotism for its great and various evils. The Russian Government is in form the most absolute of any in Europe, and nearly on a level with the Turkish, though it would be difficult to point out any difference in substance between that and the system of Austria and France, except that there the subject enjoys the inestimable advantage of a pure administration of justice, which also, in ordinary cases, imposes some restrictions upon the arbitrary power of the sovereign, though very little in those of a political description. But in Russia, greatly to the honour of the present Emperor, a resolution has been taken to effect the entire emancipation of the serfs, which had only been partially attempted by his two predecessors. The difficulties imposed, not only by the prejudices of the landowners, but by the other parts of the government, are very formidable, and most persons acquainted with Russian affairs are impressed with the belief that material changes must precede this just and politic measure, and that even if the Imperial plan were capable of being carried into execution the serf freedom could not be permanently established without serious changes in the whole political state of the country. It is, however, a most fortunate thing that the attention of the government and of statesmen should be fixed upon so important a measure as one having for its object the raising from

servitude to liberty the bulk of the labouring classes. In Austria, besides material improvements of an economical and financial description, important reforms of a political kind are in course of being effected. The constitution and powers of the Reichsrath, or general council, have been extended; and there is a fixed determination to give each province of the empire a discretion in the management of its affairs, and more especially that Hungary shall, either in form or in substance, have its ancient constitution restored. The selfish spirit of the Hungarians, their refusal of rights to be shared by the other States, their demand of what may be regarded as privileges to distinguish them from the rest, has been a serious obstacle to the execution of the liberal designs in contemplation. It may safely be predicted that no improvements will be made so valuable as those introduced by Prince Metternich, one of the greatest practical reformers of his time, and by which he both controlled the power of the nobles and raised the inferior classes to independence and comfort. The Prussian States, and those of the Lesser German potentates, have been making steady if not rapid progress in their internal improvements; but their most important proceeding has been the fixed determination to stand together against any inroad whatever that may be attempted upon their independence. Their agreement with Austria is a step in the same direction; and in Belgium, which enjoys all the advantages of a free constitution, administered with singular wisdom and justice by the present sovereign, the strongest indications have been given of an adhesion to the principle so wisely laid down by the German States,—indications which, both in their purport and in the manner of declaring them, must exclude all hopes that may have been entertained in any quarter of a disposition favourable to aggressive or intriguing designs. But the absolute government established among our nearest neighbours has made very considerable advances in those branches of its policy which are immediately connected with the well-being of the people. Economical measures, which tend directly to better their condition and to promote their friendly intercourse with other countries, have been patronized and actually adopted. It rounds exceedingly to the credit of the French rulers (possibly the word should be used in the singular number) that this wise course has been steadily pursued, in defiance of the openly-expressed discontent excited by the prejudices of the country, and the influence of certain powerful classes interested, or supposing themselves interested, against those wise measures, according to the remark, not more witty than just, of our own Finance Minister, "that men are always for free trade with an exception." When the constitutional government of France was forcibly supplanted by an absolute monarchy, Lord Denman expressed his hope that, at least, the people would receive some measures of law amendment, which might not indeed sweeten, but soften the bitterness of the chalice commended to their lips. That ingredient has not been poured into the cup, but another emollient not less potent has been infused. The princes, whose measures, equally just and wise, beneficial to their subjects and themselves, almost in the same degree, are either—as in Belgium, Prussia and Sardinia—rulers according to law, or as those in Russia and France, who are a law unto themselves, and govern according to their good pleasure. But it is a great abuse of language to call them tyrants, and a confusion in ideas to treat them as such. The abuse of despotism is tyranny; the despot who, as such, is barely to be endured, by the abuse becomes a tyrant who cannot be too much abhorred. He has inherent in him, by the necessities of his nature, some of the worst vices and most pitiable infirmities of our fallen nature; and he may have all—falsehood, concentration of all his feelings upon himself, disregard of all other men, caprice unbounded and ungovernable, the habitual belief that his fellow-creatures are of a different species, and so to be treated, unless when recognized as human in order to degrade, pollute and torment them the more—these are his appointed views; but to them he may add the most savage cruelty, and delight in the suffer-

ings he inflicts, without any other gratification to himself. If by some accident, some freak of fortune, he should have received any endowment of genius, or of person, it only makes him the more hateful, like the wit of Tiberius, the beauty of Nero; as poets have feigned a fair basilisk, to make the monster more hideous. Man's only comfort is that he must ever be a prey to the fears he spreads all around him, avenging others by the terrors he makes for himself: when accompanied, tormented by suspicion and distrust of all; when alone, dismayed by the silence of the solitude he has created. Such a spectacle has actually been witnessed recently in the blood-thirsty and pitiful, though unpitiful creature, composed of cruelty, falsehood and cowardice, who, after the massacre of his unoffending subjects, durst not face either the vengeance of the survivors or abide the coming of their deliverer, but, at the distant sound of his approach, fled from the throne he had polluted and disgraced, with the booty his privilege had amassed. Young in years to have perpetrated such crimes! But Caligula died at eight-and-twenty, and Heliogabalus at eighteen. The difference between a despot and a tyrant may be wide, and the descent from the one position to the other, power uncontrolled and irresponsible, has this mis-step; but unhappily it is easy. As long as men are men, tyranny will be the natural end of despotism. But the more easy and natural the descent, the greater is the merit of those who nobly resist the temptations that strew their path, and doing a violence to their nature, holding fast by their integrity, will not slide down; but devoting themselves to their duty, promote the welfare of those under their sway, spurn all grovelling and vulgar fame, seeking the true glory of their people and their own; the guardians of peace, pillars of justice, patrons of benevolence, they take their place among the Nervas and the Antonines, the most illustrious of mankind. Mightily must the cultivators of social science rejoice in such noble conduct of the absolute sovereigns to whom the fortunes of so vast a portion of the world are entrusted, and full well they know that their cause mainly rests upon the preservation of peace abroad and the maintenance of order at home. Well may they apply to social science the Roman orator's words spoken of his own art—"Pacis comes etiam, et jandudum constituta reipublice alumnus." Truly she is the offspring of peace, and by a greater than the Roman charity, gratefully gives her pious support to her parent. Let us not fear danger to this first of blessings from any quarter, by the pursuit of warlike glory, guilty, and as senseless as guilty, among any of our neighbours. An eminent political economist at our last Congress declared that he only dreaded the arts of the fiend, the enemy of mankind, tempting his countrymen with a laurel, instead of the apple with which he deceived our first parents. But it is edifying to observe the same individual now announcing his entire confidence in the specific tendency of that enlightened policy to which he has so greatly contributed. In his hopes we must altogether share; in the greater part of his confidence also. But it is no mark of mistrust in others, that we trust ourselves more; and we must all heartily rejoice in the spirit of determination to be well prepared which the country universally shows. Let us also rejoice in the training to which it has given rise. As a mere sanitary measure this Association has a right to own it and highly to estimate its value. But on far more lofty grounds we are bound to exult in it, for it is the pledge of peace. Here, above all other places, such feelings are natural and appropriate. We are in the land sanctified by the struggles of Religion, and renowned for supporting her sister, Freedom, in the worst of times. Here the martyrs of the cause swore to the Covenant "by the name of the Lord their God"—here, in the next age, the rebels against civil and religious liberty encountered the stoutest resistance—here, in yet later times, was begun the arming of the people for defence of the realm. Is it wonderful that attachment to religious and attachment to civil rights should kindle the same fire of patriotism, and in the same bosoms? Those treasures which men prize the most dearly are nearest their

hearts, and them with heart and hand they will defend.

On Tuesday morning the work of the Sections commenced in the College. The Lord Advocate of Scotland started with an address on Jurisprudence. Clever, sometimes eloquent, he kept his hearers for two hours, and sent them rather exhausted with the attention he gained to the work of the Sections. Of these there are five, which work under the designations of Jurisprudence, Education, Punishment and Reformation, Public Health, and Social Economy. The papers were very numerous, and embraced a large number of important topics. A programme of the whole of the papers sent in was published and distributed to the Members. Lord Brougham presided at an extra meeting of the Jurisprudence Section, when papers were read 'On an International System of General Average.' It is difficult to say which Section has been best attended, for every room has been full.

Wednesday morning opened with an Address, by Sir John Kay Shuttleworth, the President of the Educational Section. He also occupied two hours with his address, and threw the Section back for the day. The Sections were all filled again. In the evening a meeting was held, in which the working classes were addressed. There were not, however, five live Lords to present to the working men as at Liverpool, so the working men themselves were allowed to speak.

Thursday morning the Hon. A. Kinnaird, President of the Punishment and Reformation Section, delivered his address. On Friday morning Sir J. E. Tennent is announced,—and on Saturday Mr. Edwin Chadwick, who does duty for Lord Ebrington. A *Soirée* was held on Tuesday in the Corporation Rooms, and similar *réunions* are announced for the other evenings of the week.

The weather has been all that could be wished for the meeting, and not a few of the Members have been allured into excursions on the Clyde, to Arran, Loch Lomond, and the Trossachs. Nevertheless, Glasgow is seen to great advantage. Her wide new streets and noble buildings, the old Cathedral, the College, the new Churches, and the Royal Exchange, could hardly be seen to greater profit. Everything that is to be seen is most liberally thrown open. Libraries, clubs, news-rooms, vie with ship-builders, engineers, glass-workers and tobacco-pipe makers in inviting members of the Association to visit them. Glasgow has certainly put on its best appearance. It looks cleaner than it did, and the street fountains, from which gush forth the clear waters of Loch Katrine, suggest the cause. To those who can appreciate water, Glasgow now offers as rare an opportunity of tasting it as she formerly did of "mountain dew." It is pleasant to catch a glass of this water as it runs into the town with the pressure of its natural height, and think that the dirty, squalid, whisky-drinking population of its wynds can get this luxury for the trouble of drawing. What an influence this will have no one can tell. It is already beginning to tell the drinker of pure water to give up his whisky, and the dirty population accustomed to the delicious softness of the purest of waters will instinctively acquire habits of cleanliness. A terrible responsibility still lies at the door of the wealthy inhabitants of Glasgow. The revelations of the social philosophers have opened to public view depths of wretchedness and misery in this magnificent city which must make every right-minded man tremble. But they have begun the work of reform, and they must go on. This Meeting will help them in the study both of causes and remedies; and it will be at their own peril that they halt in the work of social reformation.

#### OUR WEEKLY GOSSIP.

THE only additions made to the National Portrait Gallery during the recess are, an excellent portrait of Cecil Earl of Salisbury, the "little beagle" of James the First; and a very curious full-length of the "British Solomon" seated in the robes of the Garter. Alterations have been made in the position of several of the pictures, so as to

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enable visitors to examine more favourably those portraits which had hitherto been hung furthest from view. The Gallery will re-open to the public without necessity of tickets as hitherto. During the winter months, it will close at four o'clock.

Halifax, after the manner of Leeds, is about to erect a new Town Hall, with the loyal addition of a statue of the Queen. Why should not Leeds and Halifax become as quaint, as noble and picturesque as Nuremberg or Frankfurt? Perhaps it is only a question of time. Rome was not built in a day. York was not planned by a single generation. Of late years we have seen with the deepest interest a desire spring up to adorn the cities of trade and manufacture with characteristic public and private edifices. Manchester has put on a new face. Rouen is not more changed in appearance. Lyons is not so much improved. The warehouses of the last twelve years are palaces. We only wish they had been a little more English in style. In a few years Manchester will have a character—a beauty—an attraction of its own, as strong perhaps as those of Lincoln or Wells. Commerce should be able to vie with Monasticism, at least in the opulence of its taste. Leeds and Halifax are so adding to their architectural attractions as not to lag far behind the Lancashire city.

In noticing the death of Mr. Locke we should have said that he retired from the Presidency of the Institution of Civil Engineers in December last. Mr. Bidder succeeded him in the Presidential chair.

Mr. Charles Knight has laboured for five years past on the 'Popular History of England,' and has brought it down to 1793 with only three slight breaks in his original proposal as to times of publication, and with no break at all as to continuity of style and substance. At this point he claims from his readers an indulgence which will be readily conceded to him, as it will tend even more to the readers' interest than to his own ease. In future he wishes to suspend the monthly issue—so as to gain time for closer thought and more extensive research. He promises, however, that the work shall be completed in the course of next year.

We are grieved to hear of the loss of Mr. Herbert Ingram, founder and proprietor of the *Illustrated London News*, together with his eldest son, in the fearful accident on Lake Michigan. Mr. Ingram was the other day a living illustration of the flexibility of our institutions and national manners. He had made his own fortune, and every one knew it. By his enterprise and talent, he had risen from the position of a country news-vender to the responsibilities of a newspaper proprietor, a Member of Parliament, a deputy-lieutenant, and a Fellow of the Society of Antiquaries. To-day, he is gone from among us, leaving the power he created in other hands. The story of his rise in life—of his merits and of his mistakes—will often be recalled by writers like Mr. Craik and Dr. Smiles as an encouragement to the young.

While the kingdom of Italy, which, though yet unknown to diplomacy, is shaping itself at Naples and Turin, Mr. Wyld has published a new map of that kingdom. This map shows the theatre of the present war, with the most recent changes of territorial line, and will interest all readers of newspapers and telegrams.

We have also on our table a Map of Tasmania in 1859, by Mr. James Sprenck, from original surveys and drawings made on the spot, and engraved by Messrs. Johnston, of Edinburgh. The map—which shows a recent desert laid out like an English province, parted into shires, dotted with towns and settlements, fringed with ports and harbours—is admirably designed, and will bring credit to the local geographers and artists who have contributed to its composition. Such a work is a proof of the enterprise and success of Tasmania.

This suggestion speaks for itself:—

"Highgate, Sept. 28.

"A few years ago, I urged, through the *Athenæum*, that the Cartoons of Raphael at Hampton Court should be photographed; and very well they have been done. As a specimen of modern

Art on the grand scale, I would suggest to photographers Etty's 'Joan of Arc,' the three compartments,—a fine work, the most ambitious, if not the most successful, of the artist. I believe it is now at Manchester.

"I am, &c.

W. B. MORGAN."

A Correspondent writes:—

"Kingston-on-Thames, Sept. 20.

"I notice that frequent reference is made to the French Canadian song, called 'A la Claire Fontaine,' in the letters of the Correspondents of the London journals who accompany the Prince of Wales in his Transatlantic tour. They say it is played at the balls attended by His Royal Highness, and wherever music forms part of the entertainment, and is sung to him by the boatmen on the St. Lawrence and other waters, to the accompaniment of their oars. It has always had some pretension to the honour of being the national air of Canada, and I suppose that its present popularity will establish it in that position. As it is probably unknown to most of your readers, I send a version of it as I have heard it sung on the St. Lawrence; but would observe that the 'refrain' is different from that given by the *Times* Correspondent, viz., 'Il y a longtemps que je l'aime, jamais je ne l'oublierai.' O. F."

A la claire fontaine,  
M'en allant promener,  
J'ai trouvé l'eau si belle  
Que je m'y suis baigné.  
Gai lou la, gai le rosier,  
Du joli mois de Mai.

J'ai trouvé l'eau si belle  
Que je m'y suis baigné;  
Au dessus de ma tête  
Le rossignol chantait.  
Gai lou la, &c.

Au dessus de ma tête  
Le rossignol chantait;  
Chante, bel oiseau, chante  
Toi, qui a le cœur gai.  
Gai lou la, &c.

Chante, bel oiseau, chante  
Toi, qui a le cœur gai;  
J'ai perdu ma maîtresse,  
Et ne puis m'en consoler.  
Gai lou la, &c.

J'ai perdu ma maîtresse,  
Et ne puis m'en consoler,  
Pour un bouquet de roses  
Que je lui refusais.  
Gai lou la, &c.

Pour un bouquet de roses  
Que je lui refusais;  
Je voudrais bien que les roses  
Furent encore au rosier.  
Gai lou la, &c.

Je voudrais bien que les roses  
Furent encore au rosier,  
Et que ma belle maîtresse  
Étât à mon côté.  
Gai lou la, &c.

M. Alexandre Dumas, sen., has been named Director of the Museum at Naples and of the excavations at Pompeii and Herculaneum. He has also received an order from the Dictator to publish a large illustrated work at Naples.

On the 21st inst. died at Frankfort-on-the-Maine, in the seventy-third year of his age, the philosopher Arthur Schopenhauer. He had just time to revise the second improved and enlarged edition of his work on 'Die beiden Grundprobleme der Ethik,' now being printed at Leipzig, by Brockhaus. The Preface to this work shows that he remained true to the last of his life in his hatred towards the 'University philosophers.' Schopenhauer's literary fate was one most remarkable. His principal work, 'Die Welt als Wille und Vorstellung,' remained, ever since its appearance in the year 1819, completely unnoticed for a whole quarter of a century, till, during the last ten years, the general attention of the public was suddenly given to it,—of a public, too, which generally kept aloof from philosophical studies. The long-neglected author had the satisfaction, in the eve of his life, of seeing his philosophy made the subject of the most extensive literary interest; even his adversaries contributed to his importance, by making the inquiry into the scientific value of his philosophy a prize theme.

The commission for a dramatic prize, which has been constituted on the occasion of the Schiller-Fest, met for the first time, at Berlin, on the

15th instant. The commission was formed of distinguished men of science, as the Professors Böckh, Ranke, Mommsen, Gervinus, Droysen and Curtius, and some representatives of the theatre, as Herren von Hülsen and Devrient of Karlsruhe. It has to meet every three years, and to point out to the Regent the most prize-worthy drama which has appeared within this period. The prize consists of 1,000 thalers and a gold medal. The commission is said to have pronounced, this time with a great majority, that among the dramas of the last three years none had been found quite worthy of the prize. Should the Regent wish to award the prize nevertheless, it would recommend Herr Freytag's 'Die Fabier,' or Herr von Putlitz's 'Das Testament des grossen Kurfürsten,' as most deserving of the distinction. If this rumour be true, it savours very much of German indecision and want of resoluteness. In our opinion, the prize judges ought to select among those dramas that do exist, the best according to their taste and conscience. What does it mean to pronounce none quite worthy of the prize? What ideal standard do they propose to go by? Do they demand an absolutely good drama? And are no dramatic writers to be rewarded with the prize so long as they do not come up to the Shakespeare, Goethe or Schiller standard? In this case, the Regent may perhaps save the 1,000 thalers a long time, although able pens have not been idle. Moreover, the author who will be favoured now with the prize, after the judges have pronounced none quite worthy of it, may welcome, perhaps, the 1,000 coins, but the pride and pleasure of having obtained a prize will be lost.

Herr Hermann Kurz, the author of Schiller's 'Heimathjahre,' and other meritorious works, acknowledges in the *Augsburg Allgemeine Zeitung* the receipt of a testimonial from the Schillerverein, consisting of 250 thalers (about 37l. 10s. sterling). The tone in which the acknowledgment is delivered seems to imply the desire on the part of the receiver to shield himself against a suspicion, as if the donation above mentioned might be regarded by some in the light of an almsgiving. We quite understand and sympathize with Herr Kurz's feelings in this respect, knowing full well how new in Germany is this manner of appreciating an author, and remembering what curious notions on the subject of testimonials were developed on the occasion of the Schiller Festival by a distinguished Berlin savant. The learned Professor disapproved highly of the fund for the support of literary men in need, expressing an opinion that such support must necessarily tend to increase literary rubbish, and that a really deserving author would never stand in want of support. We do not intend entering here into any discussion on the subject, although it would be easy enough to refute Prof. Grimm's opinion by a multitude of examples from the history of literature: we only wish to advise our German neighbours that, if they would adopt the English custom of testimonials, they must try to do it in the English spirit; they must not even hint, as was done in the letter from the Committee to Herr Kurz, "that the donation was meant as a proof of esteem and respect, and not as a support, of which they were aware Herr Kurz stood not in want." Qui s'accuse s'accuse is not quite applicable here, yet something of it is felt by the receiver of the gift, as his letter of acknowledgment plainly shows. In this way, the intended honour, the "cup of kindness," will always be mixed with too much of the bitter herb to be swallowed quite gratefully. It is true that the Schillerverein has been instituted with the view of supporting deserving authors who may be in want of support; it follows that the same hand which gives the testimonial also distributes the necessary alms. This would explain somewhat the above-mentioned allusion in the letters of the Committee, which strikes the reader as wanting so much in tact. However, it seems to us, this might easily be remedied, by giving as much privacy to the one as publicity and a sort of solemnity to the other office. A public dinner (always provided this did not cost the amount of the testimonial), a speech,—as things are managed in this country on such

occasions,—would go far to familiarize the German mind with the true nature of a testimonial, and we should soon find the diffidence and shyness with which such a distinction is now received wear off.

Mr. HOLMAN HUNT'S Picture of 'THE FINDING of the RAVERIN in the TEMPLE,' commenced in Jerusalem in July, 1854, is NOW ON VIEW at the GERMAN GALLERY, 168, New Bond Street, from Ten till Five.—Admission, 1s.

MIDDLE ROSA BONHEUR'S Pictures of SCENES in SCOTLAND, SPAIN, and FRANCE, are NOW ON VIEW at the GERMAN GALLERY, 168, New Bond Street, from Ten till Five.—Admission, 1s.

NOW OPEN the ITALIAN GALLERY, at the UPPER ROOMS, 135, Pall Mall.—ORIGINAL ANCIENT PICTURES of Italian, German, Flemish, and Spanish Artists; Correggio, Titian, Rubens, Bolletto. A Venetian Collection. Open from Ten to Half-past Five.—Admission, One Shilling.

ST. JAMES'S HALL, Piccadilly.—WASHINGTON FRIEND'S TWO HOURS in AMERICA, Daily, at Three and Eight, with his original Songs and Melodies, notwithstanding its great success, WILL POSITIVELY CLOSE on SATURDAY, Oct. 12, never to reappear in London.

EGYPTIAN HALL, PICCADILLY, entirely Redecorated.—WILL Commence on MONDAY, October 1, HAMILTON'S EXCURSIONS to the CONTINENT and BACK in TWO HOURS, en route to Italy, France, Austria, Prussia, Russia, Switzerland, and the Rhine; painted on 30,000 square feet of canvas, by the most eminent English and Foreign Artists, and has been exhibited in the principal Continental Cities of Europe with the greatest success.—Glorious, Mr. LEICESTER BUCKINGHAM. The National Music, by H. TUCKER, &c. The Box-office is now open from Eleven till Four, where Stalls, numbered and reserved, can be taken, 2s.; Area, 2s.; Gallery, 1s.

ROYAL COLISEUM OF SCIENCE, MUSIC and ART.—Open Daily, Morning at Twelve; Evening at Seven.—Admission to the whole, One Shilling. MISS KATE and MISS ELLEN FERRY will give their NEW DRAWING-ROOM ENTERTAINMENT every day this Week. Morning, 1s.; Evening, 6d. DR. BACHOFFNER, F.R.S., Sole Lessee and Manager.

#### SCIENCE

*Reply to Professor Tyndall's Remarks in his Work 'On the Glaciers of the Alps,' relating to Rendu's 'Théorie des Glaciers.'* By James David Forbes, D.C.L. (Edinburgh, Black.)

A British traveller (as we have somewhere read) was one day sitting in the common room of a Swiss inn, when he suddenly heard two young Germans, who had previously been engaged in earnest and apparently amicable colloquy, raise their voices to a high key, and, at the same time, their hands, in token of mutual dislike and defiance. "Yes," exclaimed one of the disputants, "you have indeed injured me; from this time forth we are no longer friends: we part; we part!" Anxious to prevent further hostilities, and, if possible, to effect a reconciliation between those who had been so lately friends, the British tourist tendered his good offices; and, upon inquiring into the cause of this deadly quarrel, after some delay, he discovered that it was grounded upon a question in the theory of Glaciers!

Now, Dr. Forbes and Prof. Tyndall are much in the same position upon the same subject; and we might proffer our own good offices, did we not remember that they are not separated merely by a table, but by the Tweed. Their difference is proximately about a bishop who wisely concerned himself not *de hæretico comburendo*, but rather *de monte observando*,—and the gist of this controversy is, whether Dr. Forbes had, in his writings on the Theory of Glaciers, done due honour to the worthy bishop, rendered due acknowledgments to him for scientific precedence, and made him sufficiently known in that light. Prof. Tyndall,—the first and more popular portion of whose new book we have very recently noticed,—wishes, in its second and scientific portion, to convey to his readers (to use Dr. Forbes's words) "the apprehension that the Memoir of Monseigneur Rendu on the Glaciers of Savoy has been almost entirely overlooked by English writers and readers on this subject; that the descriptions of it have been inaccurate and even deceptive, the extracts partial and not characteristic; so that when, after several years of study of the science of glaciers, his own attention was distinctly called, by a Swiss friend, to Bishop Rendu's work, he was sur-

prised to find evidence of extensive knowledge, close and accurate reasoning, and an extraordinary faculty of observation, together with a constant effort after quantitative accuracy and 'a presentiment concerning things as yet untouched by experiment, which belongs only to the higher class of minds.' Nor was he less struck to find that the Memoir contained passages of 'cardinal import' which previous writers had 'overlooked,' and that it should devolve on himself to call attention to them 'nearly twenty years after their publication.' After this, Dr. Forbes gives in detail the reasons why, says he, "I feel my credit involved in these allegations so as to induce me to withdraw from the neutral attitude which I have generally adopted towards Prof. Tyndall's criticisms." The allegation of suppression or omission the Doctor considers "is an odious one, whether made explicitly or by inevitable implication. It requires to be openly met by the person whose character is really in question much more than his originality."

Dr. Forbes works out his self-proposed exculpation at length, by means of quotation from his own works, the bishop's Memoir, and other sources; and, finally, endeavours to turn the table, or rather the bishop, upon Prof. Tyndall. "The claim of Rendu," he contends, "viewed by the light of Prof. Tyndall's extracts, amounts to no more than I had previously cordially admitted, and had also been (I may say) the first to proclaim,—that of having made a sagacious anticipation of a true theory from limited observation of no great precision"; and he addresses to Prof. Tyndall "a not-unneeded warning how mistaken zeal on behalf of even a deserving client may take too strongly a forensic tone, and may even wear the appearance of detraction and hostility to another."

We have employed the words of the respondent in this controversy in order that we may not seem to take either side in it, but simply to lay it briefly before readers interested in this subject in the most authentic terms. We had previously perused Prof. Tyndall's pages; and now, with Dr. Forbes's pamphlet in our hands, we may simply express our opinion, that both philosophers politely display a strong animus in this matter, and appear to attach an importance to points of priority and personality, in which few besides their own immediate friends will share.

"As an example," says Dr. Forbes, "of the minuteness of Prof. Tyndall's criticism, when my 'Travels in the Alps' are concerned, he has thought it worth while to signalize three times in as many different publications, the venial error of the True North being set off on the compass-card of my map of the Mer de Glace on the wrong side of the Magnetic North, according to which (as it is stated in the text) the map had been laid down. Yet he allows that the error was corrected by myself nearly ten years before he had any chance of detecting it." We have no concern with this alleged unfriendly minuteness further than to submit that we are all liable to err; that even Prof. Tyndall himself has been suspected of once making some such slight mistake as writing *nine* hours for *nineteen*, and that, as respects Dr. Forbes and the above error, our only wonder is that any Scotchman could have made any mistake about the North. Popular opinion attributes to all his countrymen an exact knowledge of that point of the compass. We agree with Dr. Forbes that it was a "venial error," and the more so as it is generally a Scotchman's inclination to get a few degrees towards the South. A common aphorism intimates that a Scotchman is too far north for an Englishman; while here we have merely a reversal of that foolish saying,

since the Englishman is due north, and the Scotchman edging away from it.

It is a true observation of Prof. Tyndall's, that "the extraordinary number of reviews which have appeared upon the subject during the last two years show the interest which the intellectual public of England take in the question"; but we do not think this same intellectual public have any beyond the smallest concern about the personal claims or disputes imported into these discussions. At the same time, Dr. Forbes could hardly let the present occasion pass without endeavouring to correct what he considers an unfounded statement or implication. If we, as mere overlookers, might presume to offer a "not-unneeded warning," it should be to this effect:—

Accept, dear friends, well-meant advice: When'er you walk or write on ice, Subject and substance both suggest Coolness and courtesy are best; Trip not, but aid a sliding brother; Better hold up than hang each other.

In *Athen.* No. 1641, we presented a sketch of the state of glacial theory, together with an abstract of the chief topics under personal discussion, and a notice of Prof. Tyndall's Lecture. That gentleman has considerably enlarged and strengthened his statements in the second part of his book before noticed. Indefatigable as an inquirer, and dauntless as a mountaineer, he has examined for himself and has brought together a mass of facts and observations which render his volume of permanent value. He re-examines the prominent feature of Dr. Forbes's theory—the viscosity of glaciers; endeavours to show that the "viscous theory" has assumed various forms since its first promulgation, and interprets it "as furnishing the principle from which the facts flow as physical consequences—that the glacier moves as a river, because the ice is viscous." If viscosity be defined as "gluey tenacity," and glaciers be supposed to possess such tenacity,—or, in more philosophical terms, "the power of being drawn out when subjected to a force of tension, the substance, after stretching, being devoid of that elasticity which would restore it to its original form,"—then Prof. Tyndall cannot find, in fact, confirmation of such a theory. "The quality of viscosity is practically absent in glacier ice. Where pressure comes into play, the phenomena are suggestive of viscosity; but where tension comes into play, the analogy with a viscous body breaks down. When subjected to strain, the glacier does not yield by stretching, but by breaking; this is the origin of the crevasses, which are produced by the mechanical strains to which the glacier is subjected." When *marginal*, they are produced by the oblique strain consequent on the quicker motion of the centre; when *transverse*, by the passage of the glacier over the summit of an incline; when *longitudinal*, by pressure from behind and resistance in front, which causes the mass to split at right angles to the pressure.

Some of the phenomena of Swiss glaciers which have attracted the attention of scientific observers are carefully examined and aptly illustrated by Prof. Tyndall. It was long before he cleared his mind of doubt regarding the origin of lamination. "When on the Mer de Glace, in 1857, I spared neither risk nor labour to instruct myself regarding it. I explored the Taléfre Basin, its cascade and the ice beneath it. Several days were spent amid the ice-lumps and cliffs at the lower portion of the fall. I suppose I traversed the Glacier du Géant twenty times, and passed eight or ten days amid the confusion of its great cascade." "I afterwards went to Zermatt, and, taking up my quarters at the Riffelberg, devoted eleven

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days to the examination of the great system of glaciers of Monte Rosa. I explored the Gôrner glacier up almost to the Cima de Jazi, and believed that on it I could trace the structure, from portions of the glacier where it vanished, through various stages of perfection up to its full development. I believe this still; but yet it is nothing but a belief, which the utmost labour that I could bestow did not raise to a certainty. The more I pursued the subject, the stronger my conviction became that pressure was the cause of the structure." Afterwards, he finds the evidences he sought, and "this, perhaps, was the most pleasant day I ever spent upon the glaciers: my mind was relieved of a long brooding doubt, and the intellectual freedom thus obtained added a subjective grandeur to the noble scene before me." Yet, a year after his return to England, the Professor finds that another indefatigable and able observer, M. Agassiz, had preceded him in observation, and had figured in the Atlas to his 'Système Glaciaire' a case of stratification and structure cutting each other. The established conclusion, therefore, is, that the lamination of the ice of many glaciers, which in weathered portions renders them cleavable into thin plates, and in sound portions displays itself in blue stripes drawn through the general whitish mass of the glacier, and is then known as "veined structure," is produced by pressure, which acts upon the ice as it has acted upon rocks, exhibiting the lamination technically called "cleavage." Further, this pressure produces partial liquefaction of the ice. The liquid spaces thus formed aid the escape of the air from the glacier, and the water produced, being refrozen when the pressure is relieved, helps to form the blue veins.

There are several other points of interest to glacial students, which we should have touched upon if they could have been rendered generally appreciable without considerable elucidation. On these, however, Prof. Tyndall's book should be consulted. In laying down Dr. Forbes's pamphlet, we observe that the late Bishop Rendu, as if in anticipation of the Doctor's literary execution, administered to him extreme unction, as may be seen in the words of the Bishop's letter to the Doctor—"Votre théorie de la marche des glaciers finira par être la seule admise—parcequ'elle est, selon moi, la seule vraie." &c. After administering this extreme unction, the Bishop could hardly regard the Doctor as having filched his laurels. Such is Dr. Forbes's conclusion, and the conclusion of his pamphlet; while ours is, that our respect for the attainments of both these accomplished philosophers is unaffected by anything we have sportively said of them, or they have seriously said of one another.

MEETING FOR THE ENSUING WEEK.  
Mon. Entomological, &c.

## FINE ARTS

### SOUTH KENSINGTON CHEAP ART.

ONE department of this very varied establishment deserves more public notice than it has hitherto obtained. Immediately at the general entrance, and turning to the right, a few steps lead up into an office for the sale and display of photographs, established for the multiplication of useful works of Art under Government auspices. A glance at these photographs, of all kinds and of all sizes, as they hang neatly mounted in frames on the walls, awakens considerable interest. The centre of the room is occupied with stands and brackets supporting casts from statuary and metal work, together with modern fabrications in imitation of recognized works of older times, and also a few independent productions of the present day,

of which Government approves the taste and authorizes the multiplication at a cheap rate. These various branches have been, in a measure, classified and kept apart in different portions of the building, and will enable the reader more easily to follow us as we enumerate some of the most striking objects of the Exhibition. In no branch hardly has the perfection of photography for purposes of imitation become more evident than in the copies which have been taken from the richest engravings. At the same time, however truthful the result may be for artists and amateurs in general, dealers and collectors can never be deceived, as the sense of touch would at once terminate all question. In the actual impression the printing ink would remain projecting and rough, according as forced or drawn out of the hollowed lines in the metal. In the photograph, on the contrary, everything would be perfectly flat, and as smooth as glass. Many of the rarest prints and some of the most beautiful drawings preserved in the British Museum may now be obtained in photography at the cost of a few pence apiece. At first, however, they were sold by the Trustees of the British Museum at a much higher cost. At South Kensington the same plates cost pence where shillings were charged before. Mr. Thurston Thompson's Cartoons of Raphael we have already commented upon. They quite equal in size, and greatly exceed in number and variety, the copies by which Messrs. Colnaghi astonished the world of Art a year or two ago. Nothing can surpass the excellence and truthfulness with which all points of form, appearance and condition have been rendered. The separate studies of particular heads or groups in gigantic detail have been admirably chosen; and it may be asserted, that Raphael's great series was never before, and never will be, better understood than by these results of Mr. Thompson's labour and discrimination. Size alone begins to be an objection. Many who might enjoy Raphael, and who could muster a sufficient amount of money, are not always able to afford a sufficiency of space. Seven of the cartoons, each averaging four feet in length, is a serious consideration, far more so indeed than the price; for the whole set costs something less than 5*l.*, whilst the entire series in the smallest size is supplied at a charge under 4*s.* These are, indeed, times of important changes; and we may hope that those for whom the benefits are intended will profit by the opportunity. As the original drawings by Raphael from the Collection in the Louvre are less generally known, we propose to specify some of the best, and to name, at the same time, for the better understanding the photographs, the nature of the materials with which the originals were wrought. These points the photograph rarely indicates sufficiently, and, indeed, the real colour of the chalk or ink has often much to do with giving spirit or tenderness in the first instance. As the photographs have been numbered in an official Catalogue sold to the visitors, the numbers are appended to the descriptions which follow:—

1. One of the most beautiful of the Louvre drawings is the first study for the St. Catherine, in black chalk heightened with white. The picture, formerly in the Aldobrandini Palace, afterwards belonged to Mr. Beckford, and is now in our National Gallery. A beautiful sketch, consisting of the features only, was in the Lawrence and Woodburn Collection of Drawings.

7. The Annunciation, from the Lawrence Collection: a beautiful oblong composition, in pen outline, apparently, from the prick-holes for pouncing, employed for the predella picture now in the Vatican Gallery. It was originally one of the compartments forming the base of Raphael's picture of 'The Coronation of the Virgin,' executed, in 1503, for the Church of San Francesco at Perugia.

11 and 12. Heads of the Avenging Angels in the Vatican fresco of Heliodorus, large and very fine.

23. Pen-and-ink studies for the figure of John the Baptist, admirably sketched in pen and ink, with fine clear lines. The artist seems to have experimented upon the effect of the action of baptizing with the figure seated as well as standing. The name "Raphael" appears distinctly written with pen and ink.

6. The very celebrated drawing from the Lawrence Collection of the Pieta or Body of the Saviour, mourned by the Virgin and other figures, is valuable both in point of drawing and touch; but the delicacy of the original is lost in consequence of the yellowish colour of the ink turning to black in the photograph.

10. Two naked men, very finely drawn in red chalk, are evidently studies for the two figures in 'The Transfiguration,' the young man bending forward to gaze upon the demoniac, and the Apostle next to him, who points away to the summit of Mount Tabor, and whose figure in the painting is peculiarly encumbered with drapery. This drawing belonged to Crozat, and was engraved by Count Caylus.

20. A superb study in red chalk of Venus with both hands raised, a turban instead of a tiara on her head, and Psyche at her feet holding up the vase. The Fornarina was evidently the model for this beautiful naked figure, and is recognized in one of the compartments in the Farnesina Palace, which Raphael decorated for his friend, the banker Chigi.

26. A fine pen-and-ink drawing, cross-shaded, of the Virgin, seen to the knees, holding the naked Infant on her lap. Both look into a book which she holds.

18. Chalk drawing of a standing female figure, with short dress, and her left arm raised. A study for one of the Caryatides which decorate the walls of the apartment in the Vatican containing the 'Heliodorus.' It is painted in chiar-oscuro, and supposed to personify Commerce.—(London, pl. 164.)

29. The Virgin seated and about to take up the Holy Infant, a spirited sketch, in red chalk, for the Madonna in 'The Holy Family,' which Raphael painted, in 1518, for Francis the First. Formerly in the Stella, Crozat and Mariette Collections. It is engraved in Landon's Series of Raphael's Works, pl. 217.

28. A fine sketch, seemingly the first thought for the principal figures of the circular Holy Family at Bridgewater House, known as 'The Madonna with the Palm.'

17. A female portrait, in pen and ink, seen to the elbows, with her right hand crossed over the left. More like Raphael's sister than the Fornarina, but most probably Maddalena Doni, whose portrait is at Florence in a similar attitude.

25. Madonna and Child, a fine tinted drawing for 'The Madonna del Baldacchino.' The face of the Virgin exhibits a striking affinity to the type adopted by Da Vinci.

33. The Calvary of Apelles, the celebrated composition in pen and ink, shaded with bistre, comes from the Modena and Crozat Collections.

2. Christ's Charge to Peter, the first sketch for the Hampton Court cartoon, with the figure of the Saviour in a long tunic with sleeves, a pen drawing, shaded with bistre and heightened with white. It was touched upon by Rubens, and belonged to the Odescalchi and to the Duke of Orleans, who gave it to Crozat.

8. Study of a male standing figure, drawn in chalk, and supposed to be a thought for the figure of Christ in the preceding subject.

14 and 15. Elaborately-finished designs for the entire composition, with numerous small figures of the Attila and Battle of Constantine frescoes in the Vatican.

3. A spirited sketch for the Loggia subject of the Finding of the Cup in Benjamin's Sack, drawn in pen and ink, cross-shaded. Formerly in the Crozat Collection.

32. The Five Saints, drawn with pen, and fully shaded with sepia. This design, so well known through Marc Antonio's engraving, has been considerably injured.

Important as the foregoing drawings must be held, the next series will be found to have particular interest. It consists of a set of studies by Holbein, in chalk, heightened sometimes by colour from nature, of the most distinguished persons attached to the Court of Henry the Eighth. As many of Holbein's pictures, wrought, in fact, from many of these studies, have suffered from time and ill-treatment, the good preservation of the drawings now photographed is the more fortunate. They are

said to have been given by Charles the First to the Earl of Pembroke in exchange for a painting of St. George, by Raphael. Flatman spoke of them as "a book of pictures by the life, by the incomparable Hans Holbein, servant to King Henry the Eighth. They are the pictures of most of the English lords and ladies then living, and were the patterns whereby that excellent painter made his pictures in oil, and they are all done in this last manner of crayons." They were discovered by Queen Caroline, consort of George the Second, soon after his accession, in a bureau at Kensington, and are presumed to have been purchased for the Crown at the sale of Henry Duke of Norfolk, in 1686. So highly were they esteemed, that two sets of engravings were undertaken from them since 1774; but the value of these engravings has now entirely sunk before the perfect accuracy and moderate cost of the present photographs. How Holbein worked, how freely he drew, and how nearly, in several instances, he approached to the greatest Italian masters, may be well seen in these transcripts.

It is to the liberality of the Prince Consort that the public is indebted for access to these valuable works of Art, and another advantage connected with the opportunity is, that those who could not engage to take the whole series may make what selections they please. Most of the portraits are inscribed with the names of the persons represented; but as the handwriting is of a much later period than Holbein's time, many of the designations may be questionable. In several cases, however, traces of an earlier writing may be observed, although very faint and much worn, on the same sheets, and it is not improbable that at the time when the present writing was first added, the earlier continued visible. We enumerate a few of the most remarkable, both for subject and in point of Art, prefixing, as before, the numbers which they bear in reference to the published Catalogue.

624. Portrait of an old Lady, apparently in Italian chalk, on grey paper, simply drawn, with very faint shadow, closely resembles the style of Da Vinci.

596. William Marquis of Northampton, delicately drawn in chalk, and touched upon with firm pen-and-ink lines, especially on the dress. The colours are written against the various parts.

603. Marchioness of Dorset, a stout elderly lady. Her name is traceable in earlier writing on the background over her right shoulder.

630. John Colet, Dean of St. Paul's, a rather small figure in cap and broad cape. His face seen in three-quarters, turned towards the left; the features are strongly marked, and outlined in part with ink or black paint.

641. Anna Bolleyn, Queen: a heavy-featured face, seen nearly in profile, turned to the left. Her cap is round and close-fitting, with lappets covering the ears. The picture is of special value in point of portraiture, as most pictures of this Princess attributed to Holbein have been cruelly painted over by repairers and meddling daubers.

593. Charles Elliott, Knight, wearing a cap: finely finished, in dark chalk; face seen three-quarters, turned to the left. His hair is long; the beard cropped.

614 and 615. Edward Prince of Wales, afterwards Edward the Sixth: two heads in full view. The elder one has the face and the features heavily outlined with black ink.

620. Portrait of a Gentleman, in a flat, round cap, with a fine countenance. The hair, beard and moustache very dark; the dress outlined with black ink and the various colours indicated in writing.

600. The Lord Vaux: an admirably-finished drawing, heightened with white. The colours of the dress are also marked.

604. Thomas Earl of Surrey: valuable especially for portraiture, but difficult to reconcile with the well-known portrait by Gwiliam Strete, belonging to the Duke of Norfolk. The name, however, is traceable upon this drawing, in early characters, above his left shoulder. The face is beardless, and seen three-quarters, turned towards the left. Highly finished, in chalk. It accords in likeness with No. 629, also named Thomas Earl

of Surrey, where he wears his hat and has the same straight and cropped hair.

602. Phil. Melancthon, at an early period of life: a beardless head, seen three-quarters, to the left, with a cap on.

609. The Lord Vaux: highly finished.

648. John More, the father of Sir Thomas More: a rather small head, with venerable white hair, and a quantity of fur round his neck. He wears a cap also.

653. "Thomas Moor, Lord Chancellor": a large head, seen three-quarters, and turned to the right.

649. Sir Thomas More. The head turned in the same direction as the preceding, but with more hair at the sides. It is quite white. The features are strongly outlined, although faintly shaded. The cap seems to have been covered with paint. The name is traceable at the top of the picture, in older characters than the rest.

650. John More, Sir Thomas More's son, wearing a cap and reading a book. The head, which is beardless, appears small. His sleeves are broad-striped.

651. "Harry Guldeford, Knight": a large round-faced personage, wearing a cap. A study for the Holbein painting in the Royal collection at Windsor.

652. "Waramus, Archbishop of Canterbury": the study of the hard-featured, beardless prelate's portrait at Lambeth Palace. He wears a cap, and fur round his neck, a sign in those days of episcopal dignity.

643. Lady Ratclif, viewed in full face, wearing hood, veil and stomacher: very characteristic. The various colours are noted in writing, and several details of ornament are sketched above her right shoulder.

607. The Duchess of Suffolk, with countenance seen three-quarters, turned to the left, is remarkably serviceable for detail of costume, and distinguished by careful drawing. The dress is outlined with black chalk.

622. An unknown Portrait: is remarkable for strength of individual character, and for power of drawing.

597. "John Poinces," a finely-drawn portrait of a beardless man, like an ecclesiastic, in a cap, is largely and spiritedly drawn. The up-turned position of the head gives it a totally different character from the rest.

**FINE-ART GOSSIP.**—Mr. Holman Hunt has been recently engaged in completing a small picture, begun during his sojourn in the East, representing a street scene in Cairo, which, being of somewhat humorous character, is a novelty from this artist's hands. The work shows the *rencontre* of an Egyptian damsel with her betrothed. She has been passing along one of the narrow Cairene streets alone, and come upon the young man, or rather youth, for he is little more, who stops working at his trade of lantern-making to perform a manual inspection of the girl's features through the folds of the black veil, or *burka*, that hides them below the eyes, and is suspended from the middle of the forehead by a cord that runs through a heavy brass ornament. The youngster looks delighted as he presses his distended fingers and open palm against her chin and rounded cheeks, of which the veil affords no satisfactory view. The girl is not averse to the operation, and makes but feminine resistance. He uncoils his legs from the beam on which he has been seated at work, tailor-fashion; about him hang tin and paper lanterns; under the shop-board sleeps one of the reddish dogs who are the scavengers of the city. The narrow vista of the street stretches behind,—each of the houses, with its wooden balcony, or "*meshrebeyeh*," projecting from the wall,—overhead the bamboo screens, that stretch from house to house, used to protect the streets from the sun. Among the throng of passengers that eddies past goes a blue-coated and white-hatted Englishman, mounted on a donkey, followed by the driver thereof. He has come into violent collision with a Nubian camel-driver, whose lofty beast dominates the way. Although not comparatively an important picture, this work is interesting for the representation of Eastern life, and

the character and expression the artist has imparted to it. It is less elaborated than is usual with Mr. Holman Hunt, and exhibits some phases of fine colour.

On Monday last was placed in Kensal Green Cemetery a Gothic memorial cross, designed by Mr. Thomas Woolner, in a style which is both novel and beautiful.

Mr. Redgrave stated to the Committee on the South Kensington Museum, that Mr. Smith, of Lisle Street, he was informed, intends ultimately to present to the Gallery of British Art a beautiful collection of water-colour drawings, his property.

Mr. C. Minton Campbell (Minton & Co.) has suggested to the Department of Science the excellent idea of establishing Art-scholarships for meritorious students in the provincial schools, to enable them to come up to London and study at the South Kensington Museum for one month. He thinks the amount of 10*l.* would suffice for this purpose.

Mr. Butterfield's church in Baldwin's Gardens, Gray's Inn Lane, is rapidly advancing. The building is erected at the sole expense of a well-known City merchant, is of common brick, banded in different colours, the shafts of the pillars being of red earthenware. The walls are to be carried up to a considerable height before the windows are reached, and the greater portion of the light will be obtained from the clerestory. At the west end is a *narthex*, or Galilee porch, supported by an arch of imposing span and height, and lighted by a noble west window. Here, according to the custom of the early churches, are north and south doors. To the south are the parsonage and sexton's house.

The view of Victoria, in Vancouver's Island, published by Messrs. Day & Son, is showy and effective enough, and, doubtless, a just representation of this fine Colonial city. It is picturesquely situated, amongst groves of lofty pines.

The outlines we have received from Mr. Laurent de Lara, in the name of "The Illuminating Art-Union of London," appear very well calculated to answer their purpose, if that be to offer a substitute for the practice of working in Berlin wool to young ladies who desire some such thing, and wish it to be even less useful than the old needle trifling. They are four in number, and are said to be illustrative of the Beatitudes—although we do not see precisely in what way they are so. They are styled "prize-outlines," being reproductions of designs by subscribers to "The Illuminating Art-Union," to which premiums have been awarded. These outlines are printed on card-board, and partially coloured.

A tracing from Raphael's '*Madonna di San Sisto*,' made by J. Schlessinger in 1822, having been placed as a donation from Messrs. Colnaghi, Scott & Co., in the National Gallery, affords us an opportunity of urging upon the Trustees the desirableness that good copies of the most famous works of Art should be added to the collection. The expense would not be great: the copies might be made on a small scale, so as to occupy no great deal of room, while the advantages to the students of having fair representations of such *chefs-d'œuvre* ready at hand, so that they might compare the real, but too often of necessity second-class, pictures by great masters in the gallery, with what would at least afford the means of studying their systems of composition, disposition of colour and drapery, &c., are too obvious to need insisting upon. The copies might be made in water, or, preferably, in oil colour. There is a very valuable series in the Crystal Palace, executed on rather too small a scale, however, that will give some idea of our meaning. Even photographs would be worth something.

## MUSIC AND THE DRAMA

**ROYAL ENGLISH OPERA, COVENT GARDEN,** under the Management of Miss Louisa Pyne and Mr. W. Harrison. **WILL OPEN** for the FIFTH OPERATIC SEASON, MONDAY, October 1st (and during the Week), with W. Vincent Wallace's Popular Romantic Opera of *LURLINE*. The Libretto by E. Fitzball. In addition to the scenery of last Season, will be added an entirely New, Mechanical and SCENIC EFFECT by Messrs. Griese & Telbin.—*LURLINE*. Count Rudolph, Mr. W. Harrison; Wilhelm, Mr. Lyall; Rhineberg, Mr. Henry Warton (his first appearance); The Baron Truenfels, Mr. Gratian Kelly; Zelleck, Mr. H. Corri; Ghiva, Miss Leffer (her first appearance); Liba, Miss Albertazzi (her first appearance); and Lurline, Miss Louise Pyne. After the Opera, the "*NATIONAL ANTHEM*," Conducted, Mr. Alfred Mellon.—A NEW OPERA, composed

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expressly for this theatre by M. W. Balfé, will be produced during the season. Various novelties are in preparation, in which several new Articles will make their first appearance. Stage Manager, Mr. Edward Stirling; Acting Manager, Mr. Edward Murray. The scenery by Messrs. Grieve and Tebbin.—Doors open at Half-past Seven, commence at Eight. Stalls, 7s.; Private Boxes, 4s. 4s., 3s. 2s., 1s. 11s. 6d., 1s. 1s.; Dress Circle, 2s.; Amphitheatre, 1s. 6d., 1s. 1s.; Pit, 2s. 6d.; Amphitheatre, 1s. Arrangements have been made for Families visiting the Theatre to let Private Boxes, on the First Tier, to hold Four Persons, at 1s. 2s. nightly, and on the Second Tier, for 10s. 6d., Four Persons. The Box Office will be open on, and each day after, Thursday, September 27th. No Charge for Booking, or Fees to Box-keepers.

**NORWICH FESTIVAL.**—Herr Molique's Oratorio was performed on Thursday week with a success which must gladden every one desirous of seeing real merit acknowledged by genuine reward.—It is a composition not to be dismissed with common-places,—one which few living musicians besides its writer could have produced.

The book of 'Abraham' has many good points; not the least of which is that the words are directly derived from the Scriptures, without any admixture of inferior modern composition. It is, further, not too long. The departure of the Patriarch to the Land of Canaan, his separation from Lot, his victory over the Kings of the Cities of the Plain, make up the first part of the Oratorio.—The second part is devoted to the destruction of the Cities of the Plain, the story of Hagar, and the sacrifice of Isaac, with a final Thanksgiving Chorus. Here, it will be at once perceived, are scenes admitting of great variety and contrast; but, in one respect, the selection might have been reconsidered to advantage. After the destruction of the Cities of the Plain, Abraham's part is principally one of trouble and agitation, as in the last two episodes mentioned. This damps interest towards the close. Again, during the first half of the work the music for the *soprano* is of too small consequence or interest; the author having been too exclusively occupied with the protagonist, who is a *basso*, as in 'Elijah.' As in 'Elijah,' too, the occupation given to the other voices is fragmentary—no character being carried throughout the work. This (even with Mendelssohn's masterpiece as the exception in proof of the rule) has an inevitable tendency to weaken the interest, and 'throw out' the comprehension of the listener. In no work of Art is firm-knit and continuous purpose so indispensable as in a story carried on without action, or scenery, or change of dress.

We must now come to the music. It was not to be expected that at this stage of Herr Molique's career he should be able to add to the riches of his musical nature that which was wanting to them. He cannot be rated among the born melodists from among whom the greatest musicians have come. Nor like others, in whom the natural gift has been spare, has he been led by circumstance or self-knowledge to nourish an indication into a reality,—even as by the art of floriculture petals can be doubled, size enhanced, and a thousand new tints added to the original wild blossom. But those familiar with Herr Molique's manner, as one leaning towards what is intricate in detail, must have been surprised in 'Abraham.' The most stirring and vigorous portions of the score are the best. The war-scene (Nos. 13 and 14), a recitative, aria and chorus, is the most striking piece in the Oratorio. Among the other numbers which we prefer (for a reason presently to be stated) are the Quartett (No. 5),—the Tenor-song (No. 9), tuneable and exceedingly elegantly scored,—and, the Chorus (No. 35), in which it is shown how grandeur, strictness and freedom can be combined. All the fugged movements are conducted with that grasp over resource which has no limit save in the hearer's patience. The music is throughout written with a master's hand, if not from a master mind. Every single voice is displayed advantageously, without meretricious allurements being resorted to. The force of the choruses attests the excellence of Herr Molique's writing—since with every crudity admitted there must come a loss of power. The instrumentation is clear, rich, various—nowhere fantastic, nowhere dull,—in many of the songs admirable as an example of felicitous result produced by simple and unhackneyed means. The score should be in the hands of every student of

orchestral writing.—The Oratorio, in short, from first to last, is, as we have heretofore said, sustained in a manner to claim more than common esteem and admiration.

With all this merit an objection must be urged against 'Abraham.' We recollect no example showing how a clever, conscientious man of talent can be penetrated, oftentimes to the verge of self-effacement, by the spirit of a man of genius, more forcibly than this same Oratorio. By nothing more than the many essays put forth since 'Elijah' appeared, have we been taught how entirely original a work that is;—by none more emphatically than by 'Abraham'; for since Mendelssohn wrote, no German has attempted an oratorio with claims, in any respect, comparable to those of Herr Molique. It is needless, and would be ungracious to specify the passages in which, not only a leaven of peculiar quality is to be tasted, but where, also, the very forms of rhythm and construction are to be recognized with a simplicity of reproduction remarkable in proportion as we believe it to have been unconscious. Herr Molique, be it remembered, does not range among the scholars to whom their own materials also modelled. To have been so powerfully tinted by the influence of a junior contemporary, is a fact containing a testimony too significant to be passed over. One more remark—Herr Molique has not been sufficiently regardful of variety. All the choruses, save one, are in common time,—such examples of triple time as 'Abraham' contains, being (with this exception) reserved for the solos.

The performance was one to satisfy the most fastidious and exigent of musicians. Not only did 'Abraham,' from first to last chord, go without 'stop, let or hindrance' but it was executed with that ripeness and force which can only come of thorough study. The choruses were sung with enjoyment (another proof, by the way, of their being well written)—the principal singers, one and all,—Madame Novello, Mrs. Weiss, Miss Palmer, Messrs. Sims Reeves, Wilbye Cooper, and Belletti, did the best of their best. It is impossible to sing with greater purity and pathos than did Madame Novello throughout the scene of Hagar in the Wilderness. A separate notice is due in highest commendation of Mr. Santley, to whom the long and responsible part of *Abraham* had been entrusted. The work, to conclude, was listened to with close attention, in places breaking out into applause. The composer was cordially welcomed on appearing in the orchestra, and enthusiastically cheered after the close of the oratorio.

It was not merciful on the part of the managers of this Festival to produce a second novelty in the evening—after a morning, during which attention had been so largely drawn upon as in listening to 'Abraham.' Mr. Benedict's 'Undine' is, without question, one of the best of modern Cantatas, and their number is happily on the increase. These fairy legends have generally a strange attraction for composers,—this one, in particular,—though the spirituality and subtlety of La Motte Fouqué's delicious tale might have been fancied too exquisite in their delicacy for Music, for the same reasons as, to our thinking, make Hamlet, Mignon, Miranda, difficult of approach by the art. The above, however, may be but an individual conceit;—more certain it is that Mr. Oxford has treated the favourite subject hastily. There are waters and waters. 'Undine,' like 'Lorely,' is a spirit of lakes, streams and pools—not of ocean. 'Tritons' and corals have nothing to do with whispering reeds and water-lilies, yet here we find them.—In another respect, some want of thought is evident: a want that may have pressed on the musician more than either author or his comrades have been aware. A Cantata is not an opera. The less action that it contains the better, and the action must be described so as not to render personification and motion necessary. In spite of the capital groupings and gesticulations of the crowd on the stage, and Mr. Stanfield's pictorial scenery, the chorus, 'Wretched lovers,' in Gay's 'Acis and Galatea,' is more effective as concert-music than it was when forced into dramatic form by Mr. Macready. To illustrate from another period—disregard of this distinction,

which, however fine it be, is, nevertheless one essential to be kept in mind—took away half its effect from one of Mr. Macfarren's very best works—his Cantata, 'The Sleeper Awakened.'—In 'Undine,' from the moment that action begins, it will be felt that the composer has lost some power, and that, having been compelled to write with the stage before his mind's eye, he has written that which requires action to complete its effect. No matter; 'Undine' is, to our thinking, by many degrees Mr. Benedict's best and most spontaneous work. It is full of beauty—full of fancy. The overture is delicious as a prelude to a fairy tale of lakes and streams. The opening of the *allegro* may be expressly commended to those who are disposed to be rapturists (Miss Burney's Johnsonian word) over the overture to 'Tannhäuser.' The effect which Herr Wagner has there tried for is got here. The second subject is elegantly flowing; the third, marked *schizzando* (page 7 of the Piano-forte score), happily fancied, as an enhancement—not an intrusion. We know no modern overture better than this. The opening chorus (with the episodic entrance of *Kuhleborn*) is in the same humour, excellent and unaffected in variety. In particular, the passage, pp. 22 and 23, may be specified, and, as a matter of detail, the use of the harp throughout this chorus. Undine's *solo* with chorus is thoroughly graceful, though it will tax any voice less certain in its high notes than Madame Novello's. The *Terzett* (No. 4) is not less good. The *Scena* for the tenor (No. 5), is excellent as a piece of display for the tenor, with its intimation of the march (No. 6), which, when it arrives proves to be a new Wedding March. After Mendelssohn's this was difficult to find, yet Mr. Benedict has found it. The first movement of (No. 8) a *contralto scena*, is again good and calculated to tempt every *contralto*. From this point the cantata becomes stage music till its very close—where the introduction of the single voice of the Spirit after the violent chorus which precedes it, is a touch of poetry after melodrama. 'Undine' should keep its place among cantatas; it pleased honestly all who heard it at Norwich. It will please yet more on every repetition.

Of the residue of Thursday's concert there is no need to speak. On Friday morning the 'Messiah' brought such an audience that it became necessary to build a new gallery in accommodation of the overflow.

The result of this Festival, we are assured, is good,—as results should be, wherever such enterprise in new works, as that of its projectors has been, is carried out.

**HAYMARKET.**—Miss Amy Sedgwick returned to this theatre on Monday. Her re-appearance had been delayed for a week, in consequence of an accident. Mr. Falconer's new comedy, 'Does he love me?' was reproduced for the occasion, and was so well received that its success may now be considered as confirmed. There is certainly great improvement in the dialogue, which is divested of those learned allusions that somewhat burthen the language of the author's other dramas. Here all is natural and simple, on obvious topics of drawing-room discussion, yet *piquant* and telling. Perhaps the ultimate success of the piece depends on the character of *Bubble*, which Mr. Buckstone plays with infinite *gusto*. As a conversational play, this is decidedly one of the best.

**SADLER'S WELLS.**—The historical drama of 'Henry the Fourth' was reproduced on Saturday, when Mr. Phelps performed *Hotspur*, and Mr. Vezin the *Prince of Wales*. The caste, in other respects, presented little novelty; but of the general performance it may be remarked, that the characters were judiciously distributed, and the united effect was satisfactory. The scenery was particularly good, and the costumes new and costly. The house was greatly crowded.

**MUSICAL AND DRAMATIC GOSSIP.**—Madame Hayes sang at the Crystal Palace Concert on Saturday last.—Madame Novello takes her leave

† 'Undine,' (Lender & Cook.)

† See editions of 'Abraham' in Full Score or in Piano-forte Score (Ewer & Co.).



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of such importance, from the large and valuable Traffic which it will concentrate and throw on their Road, that they  
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and passengers, during five years from completion; and FIVE per cent. for another term of five years thereafter." This  
Bonus is especially appropriated to securing the interest on Bonds.

The association of M. de SALAMANCA with the ATLANTIC AND GREAT WESTERN RAILWAY, is a voucher  
that the merits of the enterprise are not overstated and an assurance that the whole Line will be rapidly completed and  
its resources developed.

The Bonds are secured by a first registered mortgage, constituting a lien on the income and all corporate rights,  
privileges, lands, franchises, plant and property of the Railway; and give the holder the right of conversion into shares  
at par until the 1st of January, 1864.

The Bonds of the present issue are of 1,000 dollars each, redeemable at par in twenty years, are transferable without  
stamp or endorsement, with interest coupons attached, and will be paid on the 1st of January and 1st of July in each  
year, at the Bank of London, Threadneedle-street, London, and at the Banking-house of Messrs. Duncan, Sherman & Co.  
New York.

The Bonds will be issued at 80 per cent., or 1002. sterling per Bond—to include the coupon due 1st January 1861, and  
will be delivered on 1st November, or earlier at option of buyers.

The road represented by these Bonds is finished, its cost is known and liquidated, and its interest and dividends will  
be paid from its actual earnings.

The value of the security offered may be best appreciated by comparison with the four great lines of the same  
system.

The total income of these lines, for the last four years, has been as follows:—  

	Erie.	Pennsylvania.	Baltimore and Ohio.	New York Central.
	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.
1856	6,349,050	4,730,193	4,385,951	7,773,169
1857	5,742,006	4,855,669	4,616,998	6,087,251
1858	5,151,616	5,185,390	3,936,485	6,529,412
1859	4,482,149	5,362,355	3,618,618	6,300,848

And these receipts, divided by the mileage obtaining traffic, give the following Receipts per Mile:—

	Erie.	Pennsylvania.	Baltimore and Ohio.	New York Central.
	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.
1856	11,237	13,722	11,572	12,849
1857	10,164	13,096	12,182	13,368
1858	9,117	13,976	10,175	10,790
1859	7,933	14,453	9,547	10,349
Average	9,612	13,559	10,869	11,788

The contract cost of the ATLANTIC AND GREAT WESTERN RAILWAY is 37,000 dollars, per mile, say 7,4002. sterling.  
Hence, an average receipt per annum equivalent to that of these four great lines, of one of which it is a continuation, will  
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